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OFFICIAL.

State of New-York—Secretary's Office.
DEPARTMENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS.

APPOINTMENT OF DEPUTIES.

ELON COMSTOCK, of Lee, in place of H. H. Pope, for part of Oneida county.

THEODORE N. BISHOP, of Ovid, for Seneca county.

JOHN BROWN, of Chili, for part of Monroe county.

DEFICIENCIES IN THE COLLECTION OF TAXES AND RATE BILLS.

The 30th section of the act of 1841, (Laws relating to Common Schools, page 22, No. 106,) provides that whenever "by reason of the inability to collect any tax or rate bill, there shall be a deficiency in the amount raised, the inhabitants of the district in district meeting, shall direct the raising of a sufficient sum to supply such deficiency, by tax, or the same shall be collected by rate bill AS THE CASE MAY REQUIRE." Now, I understand by this provision, that deficiencies in the collection of a tax list for any legal district purpose, must be supplied by a direct vote of the inhabitants—who, when assembled in district meeting, can determine whether the collector has properly discharged his duty, and whether in point of fact, the deficiency is one which the district ought to supply, or has resulted from the neglect of those whose business it was to enforce its collection. In the case of a rate bill, however, if properly made out in the first instance, any deficiency in the amount directed to be raised, would rarely occur. Such deficiency must therefore generally result either from the omission on the part of the trustees to exempt those wholly, or in part who are unable to pay their full share of tuition; from subsequent inability on the part of those who at the time of making out the rate bill, were properly included, or their removal out of the reach of the collector's warrant, or from the neglect of duty of the collector. In the first two cases, the trustees, if satisfied of the inability of any of the inhabitants included in such rate bill, to pay the amount charged to them, or of the impracticability of enforcing the collection, are legally authorized to add such deficiency to any tax thereafter to be voted for district purposes, or to make out a tax list against the taxable inhabitants of the district, covering the amount. In the latter case, where the deficiency arises from the neglect of duty of the collector, the trustees may either hold him accountable under the 108th section of the school act, or apply for permission to renew the warrant.

QUALIFICATIONS OF VOTERS IN SCHOOL DISTRICT MEETING.

Aliens cannot, under any circumstance, vote at school district meeting, whether they are in possession of real property liable to taxation for school purposes in the district, or not, unless they have filed in the Secretary of State's office a certificate of their intention to become citizens, &c. This alone entitles them to hold lands in this state; and unless they are so entitled, they do not come within the provisions of the school act in reference to the qualifications of voters at school district meetings.

In order to constitute inhabitants of a district, other than aliens, legal voters at district meeting, they must, in addition to their qualifications as voters at town meetings, possess ONE OR THE OTHER of the following requisites:

1. They must own, or hire, real property in the district subject to taxation for school purposes; or

2. Own personal property liable to taxation for school purposes in the district, exceeding fifty dollars in value, exclusive of such as is exempt from execution; or

3. Must have paid a rate bill for teachers' wages in the district where the vote is offered, within one year preceding; or

4. Must have paid a district tax, within two years preceding.

If the person offering to vote at a school district meeting, is a legal voter at town meetings in the town where he resides, and possesses either of the above mentioned additional requisites, he is entitled to vote at any school district meeting in the district of his actual residence; but a mere right to vote at town meetings, unaccompanied by either of the other requisites is not sufficient.

Payment of a highway tax is no longer a sufficient qualification under the 4th subdivision above mentioned; it must be a district tax for school purposes.

LIBRARIAN.

If the inhabitants of a district at their annual meeting neglect to designate and appoint a librarian, the clerk of the district is the only person who can legally officiate in that capacity, until the next annual meeting. The provision authorizing the other officers of the district to hold over until their successors are legally appointed, has not been extended to the librarian.

TEACHERS' ROLLS.

The term "quarter" at page 161, of the laws and instructions relating to common schools, has reference, as a general rule, to the term for which the teacher is employed—whether for three, four, or six months. Where a teacher is employed for a year, or an indefinite period of time, the lists of attendance should be kept for periods corresponding to those for which the rate bills are made out.

COMPENSATION OF TEACHERS.

Where a teacher contracts with trustees of a district to teach their school for a given sum per scholar per quarter, he is entitled to charge the trustees that sum for each scholar whose name is entered on his roll at any time during the quarter, unless such scholar has been prevented from attending the school by sickness, or inevitable necessity, for the greater part of the term. The trustees, however, in making out their rate bill, against those sending to the schools, can charge only for the time the children actually attended. The compensation of the teacher may thus be ascertained by one standard, and the respective liabilities of the patrons of the school, by another. This distinction should be carefully kept in view by trustees, wherever they employ teachers in this mode.

MODE OF ELECTING DISTRICT OFFICERS.

The law has not prescribed any particular mode for the election of district officers. They may be elected by ballot, or in any other mode which the inhabitants may prefer. Nor is any formal resolution to adopt any particular mode necessary. The election by ballot, is recommended as the most preferable; but an election in any other mode will not violate the choice of officers, unless there has been fraud or palpable misconduct, in which case an appeal is the appropriate remedy.

SAMUEL YOUNG,

Sup't Common Schools.

Albany, Nov. 2, 1842.

ALBANY CITY SCHOOLS.

V. R. Osborn,

The Trustees of District No. 10, in the city of Albany.

The appellant in this case alleges that he contracted with Mr. John G. White, acting Trustee of District No. 10, in the city of Albany, to teach the public school in that district, with such assistants as he might deem necessary, commencing on the 5th July, 1840, on condition of receiving all the public money (excepting Library money) belonging to the district, and \$2.00 per quarter for each scholar in addition thereto, the indigent only to be exempted; that at the end of his first quarter he made out the rate bill accordingly, but that with few exceptions, the inhabitants refused to pay but \$1.00 per scholar; that he then placed his rate bills in the

hands of the trustees, who delivered them to the collector, who collected some \$20 only, out of about \$500; that the trustees, then, on application, exempted sundry of the inhabitants from the payment of their proportion of such rate bills thereby reducing the same to \$225, no portion of which has as yet been collected.

In answer to these allegations, Mr. White, the trustee referred to, testifies that "the only agreement he ever made with the said Osborn was, that he should have the public moneys, and what he could collect from the scholars for his services, and at his (Osborn's) own risk;" that no sum beyond the public money was agreed to be paid to him by the trustees or the district; nor was there any agreement that his bills should be collected by the district; that none but indigent persons were exempted by the trustees from the payment of their rate bills; that no collector was at any time appointed by the trustees, "but on the contrary, the collector was appointed by the said Osborn;" that Osborn himself objected to the appointment of a collector by the trustees, "through apprehension that it would drive children away from the school;" that to the knowledge of the deponent, Osborn "was in the practice of requesting parents to send their children to school, with the promise that no charges should be made, and then subsequently making out school bills against them;" that of this description were many of those exempted as indigent; that Osborn received all the public moneys, and "informed deponent that he had received from all sources about the sum of \$1100 for his year's services and those of his assistants, who, with one exception, were members of his own family."

Bradford R. Wood, another of the Trustees of District No. 10, deposes that he was appointed in 1841—"that he has ever understood from his associates and the said Osborn, that he, the said Osborn, took the said school on the usual terms known in the city of Albany—that is, to receive the public money and collect what he could, at his own risk of the parents sending to school—but in no case to charge over two dollars per quarter." Mr. Wood corroborates fully the affidavit of his colleague, relative to the non-interference of the trustees in the collection of the rate bills, by the appointment of a collector or otherwise—except that on one occasion, at the request of Mr. Osborn, a warrant signed by the trustees, was placed in the hands of a collector selected by Mr. Osborn, by whom \$20 was collected and paid over to him, when the warrant was withdrawn—the collector not being deemed a suitable person. Mr. Wood concludes his affidavit by stating his information and belief "that the usual practice in the city of Albany, is to farm out the districts to the teachers, and let them make what they can—the teachers taking the responsibility of collecting what they can."

Under these circumstances it is apparent that Mr. Osborn has no legitimate ground of appeal against the trustees or the district. His appeal must therefore be dismissed; but the occasion seems to the Superintendent a proper one for advertizing to the manner in which, as shown by the affidavits of Messrs. White and Wood, the affairs of the public schools in the city of Albany, are and have been administered. Independently of the manifest impropriety of "farming out" the several districts to the teachers, the excessive and censurable indifference to the interests of the schools, which such a course implies—and the opportunity for oppression and pecuniary speculation which it presents to the teachers, it is palpably in violation of law. By the 5th section of the special act, relative to the schools in the city of Albany, it is provided that "the trustees of each district, or a majority of them shall, within their respective districts, have power, &c. to appoint a collector—hire a teacher or teachers, fix the rate of tuition fees, not exceeding two dollars a quarter for any scholar; and exempt from the payment of teachers' wages any indigent persons within the district they shall think proper." The legislature could never have intended that these powers should be delegated by the trustees to the teacher to be hired by them; and the necessary consequence of such a delegation of power, cannot well be otherwise than prejudicial to the interests of the schools, and demoralizing in their influence on the teachers and inhabitants. There being no restriction as to the attendance of scholars in the district of their residence—the amount of public money apportioned to each district being dependent not upon the number of children residing in such district, but upon the number actually attending the school in the district; the salary of the teacher being made to depend upon this amount of public money so ascertained, and upon his success in collecting his rate bills; those rate bills not being graduated by any fixed standard, either of attendance or otherwise, but arbitrarily imposed by the teacher up to a given amount; and every exemption operating adversely to his interest—is it not evident that here are a combination of influences which must lead to abuses, constituted as human nature is, whatever may be the restraints ordinarily secured by the character of the teachers? Is it not enough that parents should, as is too generally the case, commit the business of instruction during the most important season—the seed time of life, to the care of delegated agents, without giving themselves any farther anxiety on the subject—but must these agents prove faithless to their trusts, and "farm out" these nurseries of the mind to others—leaving them to "make what they can"? Are the intelligent citizens of Albany prepared to sanction or to continue such a state of things? It is, in the judgment of the Superintendent, no answer to say that the practical operation of the system so administered, is, with a few occasional exceptions, unobjectionable: that the teachers hitherto employed

in this manner, have faithfully discharged their duty; and that few causes of complaint originating in exorbitant charges for tuition fees, have arisen. This is, indeed, a high tribute to the teachers; and so far as his personal observation, or means of information have extended, the Superintendent believes it to be substantially just; but it fails to afford any justification for the violation of law, and of the spirit of our institutions for public instruction. No inducements should be held out to teachers either to crowd their schools with pupils—to exclude the children of the indigent—to avail themselves of the ignorance of any portion of the inhabitants as to their legal rights and liabilities—to stint the means of instruction—in a word, to render their schools a mere mart for merchandise and pecuniary gain. It is the duty of trustees, not to "farm out the districts to teachers," but to "hire a teacher or teachers" at a fixed and definite sum—not to "let them make what they can"—but themselves to fix the rate of tuition fees, not exceeding two dollars a quarter for any scholar, exempting indigent persons,—not to permit the teachers to "take the responsibility of collecting what they can"—but themselves to "appoint a collector." It is due to the importance of the subject, and to the interests of education, that the unqualified disapprobation of the Department, respecting the mode heretofore prevalent, of employing and paying teachers in the city of Albany, should be thus publicly expressed—in the hope that it may lead, if not to an entire revision of the local system, securing a more thorough and efficient supervision, as in the other principal cities of the state, at least to a more strict conformity in the future administration of that system, to the law under which it has been organized and matured.

Given under my hand, and the seal of office of the Secretary of State.

S. YOUNG,
Supt. Com. Schools.

DISTRICT SCHOOL JOURNAL.

OFFICE OF DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT.

The following resolutions in relation to Deputy Superintendents of Common Schools, were passed by the Board of Supervisors of Oswego county:

"Resolved, That from investigations, we are satisfied that the system of supervising our schools through the agency of Deputy Superintendents, is less expensive, and more efficient, than any other heretofore tried, and we would recommend the system to a full, fair and impartial trial.

"Resolved, That this Board recommend to the favorable consideration of the legislature of this state, the propriety of repealing so much of the law relating to common schools as authorizes the election of two inspectors of schools in each town."

The above resolutions are worthy of deliberate consideration. They were not adopted by an assembly of the friends of the new system of supervision, brought together to endorse its character and commend it to the people; but by a Board of Supervisors, feeling no partiality for any innovation on the established order of things, and predisposed as guardians of the county treasury, to scrutinize most jealously every new claim upon its funds. We know that they entered on the investigation of the nature and value of the office of Deputy Superintendent, with a general bias against its necessity; and the result of a full and careful examination, was the passage of the above resolutions by a vote of eighteen out of twenty-one members. A decision most gratifying to the zealous and able Deputies of that county, and full of encouragement to all who are devoted to the improvement of the schools of the people.

We are, however, interested in these resolutions, not merely as the action of the Supervisors of Oswego, but because we know them to be true: And we say this, not in the expectation that any will place implicit faith in their conclusions, but in the hope that it may induce, as it would challenge, a scrutinizing and thorough investigation of the whole subject. For we wish not a cold assent to a system upon which reform in our schools depends; but cordial and earnest support, flowing from a deep conviction of its power infinitely to increase and extend the blessings of education.

On a former occasion we showed the greater economy of this system, as compared with that of the town inspectors, and urged the abolition of the latter office. We would now call attention to its superior efficiency, stating concisely some of the particulars in which the new system excels the old.

It secures thorough supervision and the general advance of the schools. The deputy is exclusively occupied in the duties of his office, and constantly gaining ability to perform them successfully. Travelling from district to district, ascertaining the wants and means of their several schools, and gathering monitions of improvements from each for the benefit of all, his interest unconsciously increases, his knowledge rapidly accumulates, and he hourly becomes more highly qualified for his exalted duties, and diffuses more widely the benefits of his labors. His inspections of teachers, examinations of schools, and addresses to the people, attract more attention at every successive visitation, until the public mind responds to the appeals of duty, and reform begins in these neglected and perverted institutions. In this manner the deputy becomes daily better qualified for the full discharge of his sacred trust, and with his power, increases both in zeal and happiness in doing good.

Need we urge the advantage to the schools of such a supervision, or compare it with the occasional, lax and inoperative superintendence of the town inspectors? We would do no injustice to these officers; we are aware that in a few towns they have been faithful and efficient friends of the schools; but they are so seldom called upon to act officially, that, in general, they feel no interest in their duties, and are oftentimes incompetent to their right fulfilment.

The department now knows the condition of the schools, the evils that oppress, the difficulties that embarrass, and the means that will renovate them. For the first time an educational chart has been spread out before the superintendent, exhibiting the moral and intellectual condition of the different counties, and enabling him to exercise effectually the high functions of his office. Heretofore the department has only been informed of the facts relating to the disbursement and application of the public moneys; of the actual working of the system it has known almost nothing. On reference to the annual reports, it will be seen that the superintendents have been compelled to conjecture, from the advance of rates of wages, and from the increased attendance of children,—and this for a period two years preceding that on which the report was made—the probable state of the system, and upon such doubtful grounds to base their recommendations for its improvement. But now the department not only knows the state of the schools, but can at once reach and remedy an existing evil. A striking illustration of this appeared in the last Journal, where the Superintendent, by his remarks upon profanity, in an exposition of the law in regard to the qualification of teachers, not only corrected its lax construction in a town in Oswego, but secured its just enforcement in every county, and gave a sound tone to opinion in every district of the state.

The districts have heretofore been utterly isolated from each other, and only known to the department by their occasional legal difficulties, or as claimants for a share of the public fund: their educational condition; to what extent they supply the moral and intellectual wants of the people; in a word, all that is essential to their wise supervision, has been wholly unknown to the officer who was charged with their improvement. One of the deputies remarks, that "it is oftentimes like passing from day into night, when I cross the boundary of two districts." A sad consequence of this isolation, has been the utter loss of all the experience of these schools, as well their merits as errors—the former for the general improvement, the latter for warning. How many times, in these ten thousand districts, has the same miserable management resulted in the degradation and ruin of the school? And, on the other hand, how many admirable methods of teaching and discipline have been lost, which would, if diffused, have given a general impulse to improvement.

To this same cause must also be referred the unequal operation of the system; its slow, irregular and unsatisfactory progress, and the frequent waste of the public money. These, and other evils, have flowed from the want of knowledge by the Department of their local difficulties, and from the want of means to reach and remedy them; both of which are supplied by an uniform and thorough supervision.

There are various other phases of this subject, which should be examined in order to understand the character of these two systems. It might be shown, that we owe to the former defective inspection the most of the evils and difficulties that degrade and embarrass the schools: the apathy of parents, the negligence of school officers, the incompetency of teachers, the multiplicity and unfitness of text-books—that heavy tax on the parents and deep injury to the schools—and the disgraceful condition of thousands of our school-houses. We might also show, that in all the school systems of Europe, thorough supervision is the main dependence, and that no care or expense is spared to secure it; but we have space only to notice an objection that has been strenuously urged against the abolition of the office of town inspector.

It is generally admitted, that in a great majority of the counties, the office of town inspector is an expensive and unnecessary encumbrance on the system. The inspectors themselves, are in many cases, among the most urgent advocates of its abolition; for, wherever they rightly appreciate the difficulty and responsibility of its duties, they feel the necessity of that constant devotion to them, which is inconsistent with all other pursuits. But it is objected, that the deputies cannot inspect all of the candidates, and that the schools will, in some cases, be unable to obey the requisitions of the law in employing licensed teachers. It is forgotten, however, that the commissioners are ex officio inspectors, and can, as they now often do, certify the qualifi-

cation of candidates. Besides, the deputies' certificates being perpetual, unless annulled by competent authority, there will after this winter, be a considerable number holding county licenses, and it will hereafter be seldom necessary to have recourse to any one but the county officer for inspection.

Since the above was in type, we have been apprised of a gratifying fact, illustrative of the manner in which the new system of supervision bears the test of the severest scrutiny. In Delaware county, at their recent meeting, the Board of Supervisors, immediately after their organization, unanimously passed a resolution to petition the legislature for a repeal of the law creating the office of Deputy Superintendent. On a subsequent day, however, after hearing a plain statement of facts, showing the operation of the system, from one of the Deputies, they, with a promptitude which does them the highest credit, unanimously rescinded the resolution previously adopted. We have just been informed that the Supervisors of the county of Cortland have unanimously passed resolutions in favor of the new system of supervision by Deputies, and for the abolition of office of town inspector.

LETTERS FROM DEPUTIES.

CHENANGO COUNTY.

IMPROVEMENT OF SCHOOLS—PARENTS ATTEND EXAMINATION—MUCH INTEREST SHOWN IN THE DEPUTY'S MANNER OF INSPECTING TEACHERS—CHARACTER AND SUCCESS OF TEACHERS INSPECTED.

Pitcher Springs, October 31, 1842.

MY DEAR SIR—Nearly one year has passed since I commenced my official duties as Deputy Superintendent of common schools for this county, and it gives me the greatest pleasure to be able to state, that our schools are rapidly improving.

Last winter I found few, very few, good schools. Many of them, it is true, were taught by young men whose reputation as teachers stood high, whose literary qualifications were deemed respectable, and whose moral characters were undoubted; but the idea of teaching pupils to understand—of probing the subject to the bottom, and explaining and illustrating principles, and making them sound and practical scholars, seemed to be altogether new. I have not failed, in the exercise of my official duties, to make it a special duty to impress upon the minds of parents the necessity of having their children taught practically, and upon teachers, that they should communicate ideas along with words.

Last spring I visited every town in the county, for the express purpose of examining candidates for teaching. In this the people seemed to take a deep interest, and it was not unusual for the room where the examination was held, to be crowded to overflowing. The impression had gone abroad, that under the new system, no one would be permitted to teach a common school without a liberal education; but when they saw that nothing but a thorough acquaintance with the common English branches was required, opposition to the system became less apparent. And permit me here to remark, that more candidates fail in the *Spelling Book* than in any other branch. *Reading and Spelling have been, and still are to a great extent, grossly neglected.* Among the candidates licensed by me last spring, but one has failed to give entire satisfaction to the districts; and this failure was not altogether the fault of the teacher, for alienated feelings among the inhabitants prevented the teacher from accomplishing what she otherwise would have done. With this single exception, the candidates, considering the difficulties they have to encounter in breaking off from the long established but erroneous methods of teaching, have succeeded beyond my most sanguine expectations.

That a new and happy impulse has been given to the schools of Chenango, the past year, is not to be questioned; and that that impulse will not only be lasting, but continuing to increase, I have no doubt.

Very respectfully yours,
S. S. RANDALL, Esq., Dep. Sup't Com. Schools.

COLUMBIA COUNTY.

LETTER FROM A TEACHER TO THE DEPUTY, GIVING A GRATIFYING ACCOUNT OF THE RESULTS OF HIS SUPERVISION.

Kinderhook, November 2, 1842.

DEAR SIR—Believing, as I do, that there is nothing that affords more satisfaction to those who are devoting their time and talents to the promotion of the public good, than to know that their labors are duly appreciated, and that they are producing the anticipated results, I hope it may not be deemed improper for me briefly to state the happy results of your services in the places where I have had the pleasure of witnessing their cheering effects.

One cause of the melancholy state of the schools, has undoubtedly been the want of a more efficient supervision; and another, the state of apathy which prevailed on this subject before the present plan of supervision was carried into operation. And I think, as the former of these causes is already removed, and the latter gradually disappearing, we may safely infer that their blighting consequences will soon also disappear. At least, I have had the pleasure of witnessing such a change under your superintendence. It is now about three years since I have had the charge of a common school, and I have been teaching till a few weeks since. I have frequently invited those concerned in the school, and others, to call and spend an afternoon with us, assuring them that it would encourage the scholars and assist me very much in promoting the improvement of the school. But all was to little purpose, until your first visitation. The manner in which the examination was conducted, and your address to the scholars on that occasion, seemed to stimulate them to new and increased exertion, and awakened an interest in all that were present of which I had long felt the need.

But the result of your second visitation was still more striking than the first. You undoubtedly recollect that there were more of the employers present than at your first examination, and all were highly pleased with the course which you pursued. And to demonstrate the happy influence produced by your labors, I need only add, that I received more visits, and the people manifested more interest in the school in two months after your second visitation, than in the two years previous to the first. Nor has the reformation been confined to my district. I have visited several neighboring schools during the summer. I think I have witnessed a great improvement in their condition. Teachers seem to be animated and encouraged, and parents begin to feel an interest in the education of their children, corresponding to its importance. And the office of county superintendent is looked upon, by all with whom I have conversed on the subject, as forming a new era in the history of our schools, and from which much good is anticipated.

Respectfully yours,

JAMES CARVER.

DAVID G. WOODIN, Esq., Dep. Sup't of Columbia Co.

METHODS OF TEACHING.

GRAMMAR—AS TAUGHT IN PRUSSIA.

The first object is to illustrate the different parts of speech, such as the noun, the verb, the adjective, the adverb; and this is done by engaging the pupil in conversation, and leading him to form sentences in which the particular part of speech to be learned shall be the most important word, and directing his attention to the nature and use of the word in the place where he uses it. For example, let us suppose the nature and use of the adverb is to be taught: The teacher writes upon the blackboard the words, "here, there, near," &c. He then says, "Children, we are all together in this room; by which of the words on the blackboard can you express this?" Children—"We are all *here*." Teacher—"Now look out of the window and see the church; what can you say of the church with the second word on the blackboard?" Children—"The church is *there*." Teacher—"The distance between us and the church is not great; how will you express this by a word on the blackboard?" Children—"The church is *near*." The fact that these different words express the same sort of relations is then explained, and, accordingly, that they belong to the same class, or are the same part of speech. The variations of these words are next explained. "Children, you say the church is near, but there is a shop between us and the church; what will you say of the shop?" Children—"The shop is *nearer*." Teacher—"But there is a fence between us and the shop. Now, when you think of the distance between us, the shop and the fence, what will you say of the fence?" Children—"The fence is *nearest*." So of other adverbs. "The lark sings *well*." Compare the singing of the lark with that of the canary-bird. Compare the singing of the nightingale with that of the canary-bird." After all the different sorts of adverbs and their variations have in this way been illustrated, and the pupils understand that all words of this kind are called *adverbs*, the definition of the adverb is given as it stands in the grammar, and the book is put into their hands to study the chapter on this topic. In this way the pupil understands what he is doing at every step of his progress, and his memory is never burdened with mere names to which he can attach no definite meaning.

There is here a continuation of the exercises in the preceding parts of the course, in a more scientific form, together with parsing of connected sentences, and writing from the dictation of the teacher, with reference to grammar, orthography, and punctuation. The same principle alluded to before, of avoiding technical terms till the things represented by those terms are clearly perceived, is here carefully adhered to. A single specimen of the manner in which the moods and tenses of the verb are taught may be sufficient to illustrate my meaning. The teacher writes on the blackboard a simple sentence, as, "The scholars learn well," and asks the class what sort of a sentence it is. They reply that it is a direct statement of fact. (Teacher.) Put it in the form of a command. (Class.) Scholars, learn well. (Teacher.) Put it in a question form. (Class.) Do the scholars learn well? (Teacher.) Of a wish. (Class.) May the scholars learn well! (Teacher.) Of an exclamation. (Class.) How well the scholars learn! (Teacher.) The conditional form. (Class.) If the scholars learn well; or should the scholars learn well. (Teacher.) Of necessity. (Class.) The scholars must learn well. (Teacher.) Of ability. (Class.) The scholars can learn well, &c. They are then taught that the direct statement is called the indicative mood of the verb; the command the imperative mood; the conditional the subjunctive mood; the wish the potential mood, &c.; and, after this, the book is put into their hands, and they study the lesson as it stands. After this the different tenses of the several moods are taught in the same way.

DEFINITION.

"At the first," says Erasmus, "it is no great matter *how much you learn*, but *how well you learn* it."—*Colloquies*.

We have often urged the general importance of defining words in schools, and as often, in all probability, been responded to by many friends of education; and here, in nine cases in ten, as we have great reason to suppose—the matter has rested. To most of our readers, we have been, for any evidence we possess to the contrary, like one who has played well on a musical instrument. They have heard us patiently, perhaps with pleasure, but have gone their way and conducted their schools much as they had done before.

Suppose a person educated in our schools, as they are usually conducted, should take up Mrs. Edgeworth's 'Practical Education,' and at page 250 of Vol. I, should read the following paragraph.

"Some foreign traveller tells us that every year at Naples, an officer of the police goes through the city, attended by a trumpeter, who proclaims in all the squares and cross ways, how many thousand oxen, calves, lambs, hogs, &c. the Neapolitans have had the honor of eating in the course of the year."

Now this is a paragraph which it would be said, at first thought, every body would understand. And so they would, to a certain extent, most undoubtedly. And yet, for want

of what we call defining in early life, few persons can be found who receive all the valuable ideas they might receive from it. We have said 'what we call defining,' for we include in our notions of this exercise, something more than mere dictionary definitions of words.

The shortest course by which the reader will probably arrive at a correct view of our notions of defining, will be to take the passage we have quoted from Mrs. Edgeworth, and treat it as we should at school. We will suppose some pupil has just read it; or (what might oftener happen) we have dictated to them the passage, and they have all written it on their slates. We commence and read it piece by piece to the children, asking them questions on it, and making remarks, in a manner not unlike the following: "Some foreign traveller tells us, &c. Do you know any person who has been a traveller? Were you ever a traveller? In how many ways do the people of this world travel? Have you ever read the books of any travellers?"

It is easy to see that these questions may not only lead to a full definition of the word traveller, but also to the acquisition of many valuable ideas on various collateral though important topics. By a little dexterity, and without seeming to interfere very much with the operations of the children's minds, the teacher may usually extend the conversation on each question, or cut it short at his pleasure.

"Some foreign traveller, &c. Do you any of you know what a foreign traveller is? Do you know, I mean, in what respect a foreign traveller differs from any other traveller? Who are some of the most distinguished foreign travellers? Have you ever seen one? Who was it? What do you know of him, and in what particular countries did he travel?"

"Some foreign traveller tells us that every year at Naples, &c. How many of you know where Naples is? Which way is it from us? About how far? In what country?—How could we go there? What sort of people should we see?"

"Some foreign traveller tells us that every year at Naples, an officer of the police goes through the city, &c. How many of you know what an officer is? As many as have seen an officer of any sort, may raise your hands. How many sorts of officers are there? The teacher may speak of civil, judicial, military, church, town, city, and other officers; and may say a word about the duties of each, especially city officers; and perhaps relate one or more anecdotes respecting them.

I read to you, he says, about an officer of the police. Do any of you know the meaning of the word *police*? If the teacher himself does not know, as might sometimes happen, and hence the importance of a truly liberal education, even to the teacher of the infant or primary school—let him, for once, consult a dictionary; and with the aid of this and other helps, give the best definition he can. We do not say, let him consult his books on the spot, for all this *should* be done before hand. However, 'better late than never.'

In a manner like the foregoing, may the teacher go through the whole paragraph. The words trumpeter, proclaims, squares and cross ways, would require explanation, and would give him a fine opportunity—if peradventure the required knowledge should not be wanting—of saying something about city criers, and the general structure of cities.—The consumption and consequent destruction of a great multitude of domestic animals, in a country so rich in vegetable products, might lead to many useful moral reflections, and lead their young minds to sympathize with suffering, and to desire to relieve it.

Now the difference between the individual who has been instructed in this way at school, by daily if not by hourly lessons, and one who is brought up as most of us were, to glide over every thing and fully understand nothing, is almost inconceivable. For it is not the mere difference between an increase of knowledge on the one hand, and the want of it on the other. The individual who has been taught in the way we have recommended, becomes a thinker, and is likely to make progress in every thing to which he turns his attention. Whereas the tendency of the common method—or rather the common want of method—is obviously all the other way; and if it does not actually make the mind stationary, does not prevent its becoming so.

A person trained as the mass of us are, who should read the passage upon which we have remarked so freely, would get perhaps the following ideas. Somewhere in the world is a place—whether city, town or province, and whether in a temperate or tropical region he would not know, or at least would not think,—in which it is said by somebody, that a person goes around and tells in some way or other, how many oxen, &c. have been eaten. A few might go a little farther in their reflections, and recollect that Naples was a city, and that Dr. Humphrey or some other person had been there; and a few might remember that it is in the south of Europe.

But a person trained in a school where the teacher had pursued the plan we have proposed—we mean the *spirit* of the plan, for we care nothing about the forms—would derive a thousand more ideas from the passage than we have mentioned. Or rather the passage would suggest—stir up—a thousand ideas or associations of which the other was wholly ignorant.

At the mention of foreign travellers, and Naples, there are minds which would glance with a rapidity that leaves the lightning far behind it, across the Atlantic, touch various points of the Mediterranean, see Naples—its streets, buildings, inhabitants, curiosities—recollect many travellers who have been there, and the peculiarity of some of their views. The word police would summon to their mind's eye a city court—its culprits, justices, judges, or other officers, its decisions, &c. Officer, trumpeter, squares, and cross ways, would suggest more associations of ideas, and recall more anecdotes than we have time or room to describe. And the thousands of oxen, sheep, calves, and hogs, consumed, would remind him of their fields, flocks, herds, customs, manners, &c. All this, too, in the same compass of time, and with as little voluntary effort as was required in the former case to recollect a few things only.

If life is to be measured—in some degree at least—by the number of our ideas, and if his is, in any sense, the longest life which contains the greatest number, how much longer, may how many hundred times as long—does the cultivated and truly thinking mind live, than that which goes through the world without seeing any thing? But the question whether we shall see much or little, and think much or little, and live much or little, depends in no small degree, on our

early education, and the manner—wisely or unwisely—in which it is conducted.

HISTORY.

"Histories make men wise."—BACON.

History cannot be fully taught at any school. All that can be accomplished in regard to the history of any other country than our own, is to give sketches or pictures of certain important periods or events. The abridgments and compends of history often used, do little more than disgust children with the study. The teacher's object should be to give them such pictures as would win them to it.

History is usually taught by assigning a certain number of pages in some text-book, and requiring the class to answer questions in them. The questions are either prepared and known beforehand to the pupil, or are such as the teacher pleases to ask at the time of recitation. The danger incident to the use of prepared questions is, that the pupil will commit to memory just such a portion of the text-book as furnishes answers. This process gives no exercise to discrimination, judgment, taste, or language. It is a mere exercise of memory. The other mode is apt to be so too. The faithful and ambitious pupil will be tempted to commit the whole lesson to memory, and to answer in the words of the author. To prevent this waste of time, the teacher should encourage his pupils to answer in their own language. He should also ask questions of a general nature, such as, what is the subject of this lesson? or this chapter? State, in a few words, the events recorded in it. What should we think of this measure? What of that character? Questions of right and wrong should be constantly brought up in lessons in history.

As we can teach so little of History at school, one object should be to show how it should be studied; another, as I have already said, to create an interest in the study. It may serve, at the time, to exercise the attention, the power of orderly arrangement, the moral judgment, and the use of language in narration. To answer these ends, it is best taught without a text-book, the teacher himself making the whole preparation. The pupils should be furnished with maps, or a large map should be suspended before them by the side of the blackboard. If the pupils have no suitable maps, and that of the teacher be on too small a scale for exhibition to a class, he should draw on the blackboard a magnified outline of the seat of the event.

Care should first be taken to give an idea of the remoteness of the event to be described, by tracing a line on the blackboard, to represent two or more years, and showing how long it would be necessary to draw it to represent the period which has elapsed since the event occurred. The date may be given on the blackboard, and the place may be pointed out on the map, or mentioned, and the pupil allowed to find it for himself. The teacher may then read, or, what is far better, narrate in familiar language, and in the manner of conversation, the event, or series of events, which he intends to make the subject of the lesson. If his pupils are beginners, he should not speak long before asking questions as to what he has been telling. If these are made frequent, the pupil will be encouraged to give his attention to the end.—The questions, who? and where? and when? as well as what? should be asked. When the teacher's narrative is finished, he should ask if some one will not undertake to tell the whole story in his own language. Those who have the best talent for narrative will be ready to do this, and, after some little practice, nearly the whole class. Or the teacher may say, 'I wish you all to write upon your slates or paper, and bring to me to-morrow, what you can remember of the story I have just told you.' Questions should also be asked as to the moral right or wrong of the characters of the actors in the event.

Let not the teacher be discouraged by the slow progress he seems to make. In the usual mode of teaching History, two or three hours are often spent by the pupil out of school, and half an hour, or an hour, at the recitation in school, upon a single lesson of six or eight pages; and, after all, very little is learned except mere facts, and those perhaps, indistinct and barren; while in this way, in half an hour, two or three pages at first, and afterwards five or six, or even ten, will be learned, and at the same time the power of attention be improved, the moral taste elevated, the power of narration exercised, and the connexion between History, and Chronology and Geography will be shown.

STUDY OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY CONNECTED.

History and Geography should be studied in their inseparable relations with each other. The pupil should be required to read history and biography with his atlas before him, and he should be instructed how to write the studies of Geography, Chronology, and History, by a modification of the exercise of map drawing, before described. Let the pupil, for instance, make an outline map of the state of Connecticut, and then begin to fill up it with the outline and names of the several towns in the order of time in which they were settled, adding the year and month in which each settlement was begun. Or, let him draw an outline map of the world, and then make as many copies (by tracing each with a pencil on a sheet of paper lying over it,) as there are great epochs in the history of mankind. Let him assign one copy to each epoch, and then draw the rivers, mountains and boundaries of the different countries then known, the names of the cities, the dates of their foundation, and such other particulars belonging to each epoch, as admit of being marked upon the map. On each should be set down the birth places and routes of celebrated persons, who have led armies, founded colonies, or changed the moral aspects of the age in which they lived—such as the journeys of our Saviour, the travels of the Apostle Paul, the route of Columbus, the birth places of Alfred, Luther, Howard, Wilberforce, Washington, &c. A series of maps filled up in this way, will be of invaluable service in fixing the great features and events of Geography and History, and as a means of self-improvement.

PHYSIOLOGY.

"There is no mystery into which mankind are more curious to pry, than into that of their internal structure: and certainly there is none on earth which so nearly concerns them."—E. Johnson.

Next in importance to the indispensable arts which are at the base of all instruction, and before Geography and Histo-

ry, is Physiology, the laws of our own constitution. In some form it should be taught in every school. I have already shown how it may be taught in the general lessons. When it can be done, it should be introduced as a regular study. As in importance, so in interest and in the exercise it gives to the observant and reflecting powers, it is second to no other.

There are several good works upon the subject published in this country.—Hayward, Coates, and Andrew Combe. Neither of these is complete. The last seems best suited for study in school, although the first is most elementary.—The teacher should have the two; and if he uses one as his class-book, should take the other to help him supply its deficiencies.

Physiology may be taught in the same way as History, the teacher only having the book and requiring attention, and asking all the necessary questions: or, if there be not time for this, all may have books, and come prepared for examination in an assigned portion. Take care that they learn not words only. Insist upon answers in their own language. In the case of muscles and bones, and in whatever else it can with perfect delicacy be done, let the learner find what is described in his own body. The great principles should be frequently brought up, and made familiar by daily repetition. If so, they will become an integral part of the pupil's knowledge; and none is more essential, or more fruitful of beneficial effects.

A useful exercise in composition is an enumeration of the most important principles on a particular part of Physiology, in the learner's own language; or his inferences from one or more; or a more general enumeration of the leading principles of the science.

COMPOSITION.—AS TAUGHT IN BOSTON.

"What is that power which puts us in possession of the future,—transports us to all distances,—makes us conceive objects invisible to sense,—introduces us to what is merely possible,—sustains our strength by hope,—extends the narrow sphere of our existence beyond the limits of the present? May it not, by deepening the sources of our sensibility, fertilize the field of our virtue?"—*Degerando*.

Nothing can exceed the distress caused to most children over six years, by a demand for composition; but these children would have been willing at three, to describe every walk, object, or amusement they had enjoyed. At that age, need of sympathy and their great life lead them to reproduce; and the novelty of objects and the nice perceptions of children, make them describe vividly and graphically. But we are apt to be too selfish, and too much cumbered with other things. We check the flow of talk as it is gushing forth, and then, when we have leisure and inclination, we call the child to us, and wonder that it has nothing to say. If we are sitting alone in a room with nothing to engage a child, we may, with all our resources, find it difficult to fix its attention; but if we take it the length of the street, we shall be overwhelmed with questions. It has not in itself sufficient subjects for thought, and we must present these, if we would have the child talk or write.

Nearly the same training will secure the power of conversing and writing well; and both are far more in our power than we suppose. I speak now chiefly of the latter, which beside the requisites for conversation, requires the power of concentrating thought.

Savages, and children under little restraint, generally possess eloquence and ease of expression; and children should be encouraged to speak naturally and freely of all they see, think, and feel. Thus their conversation will be what it should be, the perfect reflection of all objects, colored by the individual soul; or rather the soul's myth and incense, its fruit and flowers, elaborated from the crude materials it has imbibed.

They should utter every emotion; they should make inquiries to the purpose, state their difficulties clearly, and strive always to express precisely what they mean. We are too indulgent to them in this respect. We are afraid to check their confidence, and are so glad to have them use their powers, that we are satisfied with very imperfect execution. I do not quite agree with Dr. Johnson, that if a boy saw a thing out of one window, and said he saw it out of another, he should be whipped; but I do think the habit of describing accurately would be cheaply purchased by many whippings.

AS TAUGHT IN ENGLAND.

As soon as a child can spell and understand a few simple words, you should begin to exercise them in little sentences, and should continue the practice in their whole school life.

Suppose you write the names of the colors, black, blue, &c.; and then let each child in turn mention all the things that can think of which are black, blue, green, &c. They will say, "the grass is green; the trees are green; my frock is green; my lips are red; ink is black; the sky is blue; my shoes are black," &c. &c.; and in a quarter of an hour you will have written a long spelling lesson. Another day you may write down all that is sweet, sour, bitter; all they can think of that is hard, soft, rough, smooth, round, square, heavy; light; and so you may go on day after day. Sometimes let them dictate a text from Scripture which they wish to tell you of, or a verse of a psalm or hymn, or a proverb; but every day let some little matter be written on the board.

It is a good exercise sometimes to ask children to recollect all the objects they observed in the woods, fields, or lanes, as they walked to or from school, and let them bring the leaves of different trees, the wild flowers, &c., and then let them tell you how to spell the words.

Now, some people may tell you that it is of no use to teach these children these common, easy things, and that all you should do, is to give them what they call book-learning; but I assure you, that if you do not allow them to write from their own heads, little sentences about easy matters they can think and tell about, they will never know how to express themselves properly or clearly; and if they can tell you in writing what they now know, and think, and understand about, when they have read and learned more, they will be able to write down their thoughts and recollections on other and more difficult subjects.

Sometimes you may ask the children to write down on their slates all the things which they know to be right to do, and all that they know to be wrong.

Write on your slates, or on the walls, the names of all fruit

which grow on trees. The names of fruit which grow on bushes; what plants are cultivated for the roots? what for the leaves? what for the seeds? The seeds of what plants grow in pods like beans? what seeds grow at the top of plants like wheat? What trees are useful for timber? What trees are cultivated for the fruit they bear? What for both timber and fruit?

Mention all the creatures you can think of that feed on grass. Ask what is the color of grass? What is hay? When is the grass cut down? with what instrument is it cut down? Do you think the cattle would like to lie down on the hard road as well as the soft grass? Would you like to look at the fields if they were brown or red, as well as you do now that they are green?

Then say, "now, write on your slates all you can think about grass; now, all you know about the different sorts of corn; all you know about garden vegetables, and the manner of cultivating them. What difference can you mention between birds and beasts? what difference between birds and fishes?"

The names of a great variety of substances, whether manufactured or unmanufactured, may gradually be arranged; and the colors, shapes, and uses added.

AS RECOMMENDED IN THE SCHOOLMASTER.

Simple sentences are to be written. Several words are given, and the pupils are required to write a sentence so as to bring in one or more of them. Phrases are given for the same purpose, or sentences in which several words are omitted, which the pupil is to supply. Variety of arrangement is taught by arranging a sentence in several different ways, and assigning others for practice. Variety of expression is taught by showing how the participle may be substituted for a conjunction, by changing an active verb into a passive, and the reverse, by the substitution of nearly synonymous words, by circumlocution, and by softened expressions. Compound sentences are reduced to simple ones, and these united into compound ones. Poetical sentences are given, to be expressed in prose. The definition of words may be given in a sentence, and several sentences may be written to show the difference in the meaning of two words. A short story is told, which the pupil must write in his own language. The heads of a story only are given, which the learner is to make into a connected narrative, or to amplify from his own imagination. Objects are assigned, to be described. The figures of speech, tropes, metaphors, allegories, hyperbole, personification, apostrophe, simile, antithesis, climax, &c., are successively explained, and suitable sentences or subjects are suggested, on which they may be exemplified. Simple and compound themes and essays are explained, models are given, and exercises are required.

MUSIC.

RULES TO BE OBSERVED IN TEACHING.

- 1st. Do not speak of singing as a difficult art, but rather as a very natural, agreeable, and necessary one, for which our throats, ears, and hearts were designed, and which has been, and may be easily learnt.
- 2d. Make the exercise a privilege, and, if you please, a reward, allowing only the well behaved to join it.
- 3d. Have the exercise early after opening the school, to attract the children early.
- 4th. Use familiar language in speaking of it.
- 5th. Begin with teaching well the most important parts, and some simple, short, and agreeable tune, or part of a tune with words. Sing it over every day until it is known. Do not forget that children will want to sing immediately, and not to delay a week or a month on the rules alone.
- 6th. When all can sing a little, let the teacher sing a bass, or some other part with them, without telling them he is going to interrupt them. They will soon be able to sing one, two, or three parts themselves.
- 7th. If the teacher feels diffident about commencing, let him find one or more scholars who sing, and train them first alone. They will afterwards aid him in leading the others. Or he may get the chorister of the parish to begin with a few lessons, on such principles as are given below.

If the pupils are taught to sing well, even two or three single tunes only, the parents will probably be gratified and attracted to the school, and the exhibitions may be made more interesting.

MODE OF TEACHING THE NOTATION OF MUSIC.

The teacher would of course begin by describing the musical characters on a black board, and he would question the children, and cross-question them upon the subject, in a manner which would readily suggest itself. He would describe the gamut, or diatonic scale, upon a board, and teach the children to sing through the scale, pointing to each note as they sang it. He would also exercise them by the same means in rising by thirds, fifths, and octaves, and descending by similar gradations. In the French elementary schools the course is this.—The children are first taught by the ear a simple lively melody. When they can sing it perfectly by ear, the music is then written out with chalk upon a black-board. The children then again sing through the air, the teacher pointing to each note as they sing it. By this means they see how the sounds, with which they are already familiar, are expressed by notation; and they are afterwards exercised in singing detached passages of the same air, and then detached notes, till they can sing any note correctly when they see it. To enable him to have any clear ideas on the subject, you must put the music before him, although he may sing it at first merely by ear. He will then see that the higher notes are placed on the upper part of the staff, the lower notes at the bottom; that the white notes are always held longer than the black ones; and by this means he will gain a practical acquaintance with the subject, which, however little, will be a sure foundation for future attainments. There can be no difficulty in carrying this plan into effect in a school; because, although music is dear, one copy of a song, or of a collection of songs, will always suffice, as music-paper is cheap, and one hundred manuscript copies may easily be taken by the children who have learned to write.

IN GERMANY

Says Mr. Wyse, in his work on Education, every pupil sings; every master plays on that most difficult and magnificent of all instruments, the organ. In fact, travel where

you may, the results of this education every where meet you;—in the mountain, in the plain—in the chapel, in the cathedral—you every where hear the music of the human voice; and wherever you hear it, it is impossible not to bow down before it—not to feel yourself profoundly and solemnly moved. Well may Haydn have asserted that the finest things he ever heard in music, did not approach the effect produced by the uniting of the voices of the London charity children, at the anniversary meeting in St. Paul's Cathedral. And why are these voices not heard in every church and chapel in the land? why is singing not taught in our schools? A better preservative of pure morals—a more delightful addition to their innocent amusements—a more cheerful stimulant to all their exercises, whether of labor, study, or religion—can scarcely be devised. Nor would its effects be confined to the school-room or to childhood; it would soon penetrate the paternal dwelling, in another generation it would be natural to the land.

IN SWITZERLAND

Says a recent tourist, we have listened to the peasant children's songs, as they went out to their morning occupations; and saw their hearts enraptured to the highest tones of music and poetry, by the setting sun, or the familiar objects of nature, each of which was made to echo some truth, or point to some duty, by an appropriate song. We have heard them singing 'the harvest hymn,' as they went forth before day-light, to gather in the grain. We have seen them assembled in groups at night, chanting a hymn of praise for the glories of the heavens, or joining in some patriotic chorus, or some social melody; instead of frivolous and corrupting conversation, which so often renders such meetings the source of evil. In addition to this, we visited communities, where the youth had been trained from their childhood to exercises in vocal music, of such a character as to elevate instead of debasing the mind; and have found, that it served in the same manner to cheer their social assemblies, in place of the noise of folly, or the poisoned cup of intoxication.—We have seen the young men of such a community assembled, to the number of several hundreds, from a circuit of twenty miles; and instead of spending a day of festivity in rioting and drunkenness, pass the whole time, with the exception of that employed in a frugal repast and a social meeting, in a concert of social, moral, and religious hymns, and devote the proceeds of the exhibition to some object of benevolence.

IN PRUSSIA,

At Bonn, on the occasion of a marriage, the ceremony of which we were invited to witness, a class of boys and girls from the town free school, attended and sung in a very effective manner, several choruses from the 12th Mass of Mozart. At Dresden, we heard an anthem sung by a choir of boys in the street, at the door of the parents of one of their school-fellows lately dead. The harmony and the voices were excellent, and this touching mode of giving expression to a mournful sympathy (a custom generally followed) made an impression upon our minds which will not be easily effaced.

It is not, however, music of a solemn or grave character which should be chiefly encouraged in a children's school; as a moral engine we want not the music that will sadden, but that which has a cheerfulness influence. Music is now recognized as a legitimate branch of instruction even for the poorest, by all our great educational societies, but where it is confined to simple psalmody, its usefulness is very limited. Children take but little interest in grave or plaintive airs.—The music which pleases them, in which they will always take a part with eagerness, is that which harmonizes best with the buoyant spirits of youth: lively movements calculated to arouse their dormant energies and invigorate their faculties after a fatiguing lesson, and these arranged to useful moral songs, are much better adapted to the school-room and play-ground, than the solemn strains appropriate exclusively to the act of public and private worship, or to a funeral service.

With singing, it is always desirable that steps should be taken to teach children effectively, the notation of music, so that their acquaintance with an innocent and rational recreation suitable for all ages, may not be confined to a few tunes taught by ear.—*W. E. Hickson*.

IN BOSTON,

It is believed that the introduction of vocal music into the public schools of Boston, has answered the expectations of its friends, has been such as to secure its continuance here, and to induce its introduction elsewhere. Some of the anticipated advantages which have been in a good degree realized, cannot be better stated than in the language of the first report upon the subject, made to the school committee of 1837.

"Good reading, we all know, is an important object in the present system of instruction in our schools. And on what does it depend? Apart from emphasis, on two things mainly:—modulation and articulation. Now, modulation comes from the vowel sounds, and articulation from the consonant sounds, of the language chiefly. Dynamics, therefore, or that part of vocal music, which is concerned with the force and delivery of sounds, has a direct connection with rhetoric. In fact, the daily sounding of the consonant and vowel sounds, deliberately, distinctly, and by themselves, as the committee have heard them sounded in the musical lessons given according to the Pestalozzian system of instruction, would, in their opinion, be as good an exercise in the elements of harmonious and correct speech, as could be imagined."

Again: "There is another consideration not unworthy of remark. 'Recreation,' says Locke, 'is not being idle, as any one may observe, but easing the weary part by change of business.' This reflection, in its application to the purposes of instruction, contains deep wisdom. An alternation is needed in our schools, which, without being idleness, shall yet give rest. Vocal music seems exactly fitted to afford that alternation. A recreation, yet not a dissipation of the mind—a respite, yet not a relaxation,—its office would thus be, to restore the jaded energies, and send back the scholars, with invigorated powers, to other and more laborious duties."

Again: "By the regulations of the school committee it is

provided, that in all the public schools the day shall open with becoming exercises of devotion. How naturally and how beautifully, vocal music would mingle with these exercises, and what unity, harmony, and meaning might thus be given to that which, at present, is feared, is too often found to be a lifeless or an unfruitful service, need only to be suggested to be understood."

The introduction of this new branch of instruction has in no way impaired the discipline or interfered with the other studies of the schools. On the contrary, it has seemed to form a pleasant incident in the routine of study. It has interested the children; and by singing together, especially when boys and girls unite, a kindly and pleasant influence is exerted upon their manner toward each other. And I think it may be truly said, that in addition to the children's obtaining a useful and pleasant art, its introduction has done no harm to the other departments of the public schools, but, on the contrary, exerts an influence which benefits all departments, and both instruction and discipline.

In regard to the number who are capable of being taught, Mr. Mason thus writes:

"I think experience authorizes me to say, that there are none who are incapable of being taught. In this, as in all the other branches to which the scholars attend, all may make some progress, though, as in other branches, there are but few who will excel. I am fully satisfied that a capacity for music is a universal gift of Providence, and that to find a person incapable of improvement, is as rare as to find one born deaf and dumb, or blind."

DIRECT DUTIES.

"To instruct youth in the languages and in the sciences, is comparatively of little importance, if we are inattentive to the habits they acquire, and are not careful in giving to all their different faculties and all their different principles of action, a proper degree of employment."—*Stewart*.

A teacher should do what he can to form the moral character of his pupils. I have spoken of his indirect influence in this respect. That will chiefly affect their feelings, by giving them the love of excellence. I am now to speak of what he is to endeavor to do to form their habits of right action.

The great object to be kept always in view is to establish the dominion of conscience, to make it quick and active, and to connect with its action the formation of habit.

We speak of conscience and habit separately, but they should, as far as possible, be constantly and inseparably associated.

Conscience is that power within us which approves of what is thought to be right, and disapproves of what is thought to be wrong. Beginning to act in infancy, as soon as a child is capable of the ideas of right and wrong, at first, like all the other faculties at their earliest dawn, its action is obscure, and its decisions indistinct. Like every other faculty, it is improved by exercise, and weakened by inaction. It should be enlightened by reflection upon those relations to God and man from which duties spring, by the truths revealed in the Scriptures, and by a knowledge of the laws of our nature, and of the creation in which we are placed. The enlightened conscience should be constantly exercised, from the beginning to the end of life. In this way only, does it become, what it is doubtless intended by our Maker to be, the supreme and controlling power. It is exercised by deliberately asking, in regard to every action which is presented, "Is this right or wrong?" And in this way only will be established the most important of all habits, that of acting conscientiously.

The habits over which the teacher has most control, and which he may do much to form in his pupils, are:

The habits of punctuality and regularity; of diligence and love of labor; of economy; of perseverance; of forethought:

Of kindness and courtesy; of mercy to inferior animals; of forgiveness of injuries; of charitableness;

Of justice and respect for property, of respect for superiors; of submission to the authority of laws; of truth; of reverence for God, and obedience to his laws.

I shall endeavor to show very concisely, otherwise these remarks would become a volume of sermons, how the duties on which each of these rests, may be explained and enforced, and how the habit may be formed. In regard to all of them, it should, however, be said, that there are individuals in whom it is nearly impossible for them to be formed. We must not, on that account, be discouraged. Our efforts may and will be successful, in reference to the great majority. Let us not be disheartened, that we cannot do all things.

The habit of PUNCTUALITY at school, will be strengthened by every thing which makes school pleasant. If a story is told at the morning hour, which the children like to hear, they will be induced to exert themselves to be present. If a song or a hymn is sung, some lagard will be led to come early to enjoy the pleasure of joining in it. Kind commendation of those who are punctual, and kind expostulation with the tardy, will have their effect. Appeal to the example of good men. General Washington was always punctual, and required others to be so. Explain to a child, that by being tardy, he loses time which he cannot recall, disappoints his friends of the improvement he ought to make, and, what he has no right to do, sacrifices the time of others as well as his own.

THE HABIT OF REGULARITY

Is formed by the natural action of a good system. This depends on yourself. A child who has long been in the habit of doing these things in a settled order will feel the pleasantness and advantage of the course, and will be likely to adhere to it.

LOVE OF LABOR AND DILIGENCE.

Whatever makes labor or study pleasant, will lead to this habit. The studies must be adapted to their capacity; they must be made clear and practicable, but not too easy. It is altogether false, that children are naturally indolent. On the contrary, they are naturally active, and fond of exercising their faculties; and, if we can find out how to lead them to exercise their minds upon appropriate objects, such as are suited to their state and strength, we shall easily form this habit. Indeed, our principal care is to see that we do not

break this natural habit by absurd and unreasonable regulations.

ECONOMY

May be enforced by requiring children to be careful of their books and other articles of property, and by explaining to them the folly and wickedness of waste, in that it diminishes their power of doing good to those in want. It would be well to make economy the subject, occasionally, of remarks to the school, laying down and proving the principle that no one ought, in any case, to spend more than his income; and stating the pernicious consequences of borrowing, and then living on the property of others.

FORETHOUGHT

May be taught by our regulations. At the time of an exercise which is assigned beforehand, every pupil should be required to be prepared or to lose the lesson, or something else which he values. This is the natural penalty for want of forethought. Let us take care that we do not prevent its action by our own mistaken kindness. But remember that much forethought is not to be expected in a child.

PERSEVERANCE

May also be taught by adherence to a good system. A child who, every day at a certain hour, is called upon to perform a certain exercise, who is encouraged to do more and more without aid, and who, by our system, is led to persevere in it regularly for months together, and then is led to look back and see how much he has accomplished, has taken a lesson in perseverance and regularity which he cannot soon forget.

THE LAW OF KINDNESS

Is best taught in the language of our Saviour. His commands on the subject should be often read, and explained or enforced. Active kindness, doing good, is taught by his whole life and death more powerfully than it was ever taught before or since his time. The Christian law of love should be written on the heart of every follower of Christ, should be often repeated, and constantly appealed to. If you are not a follower of Jesus, still, if you will examine the records of his instruction, you will, if there is a strong feeling of humanity in your heart, be willing to admit that his great doctrine of peace on earth, and good-will to all mankind, is worthy of being divine, and that on this point, if on no other, no man ever spoke like him. If you will calmly and impartially examine this question, you will probably be inclined to agree with Lord Bacon, in thinking "that there never was found, in any age of the world, either religion, or law, or discipline, that did so highly exalt the public good, as the Christian faith." The feeling and practice of kindness are to be taught, also, by example. This is intelligible when words are not. Courtesy is the natural fruit of the principle of kindness. It needs no great eloquence or acuteness to show that whatever is rude, harsh, unfeeling, or discourteous, is no less offensive to Christian feelings or principles, than it is unbecoming the character and manners of a gentleman.

Every act observed in school, which is a violation of courtesy or kindness, should be remarked upon to the offending individual, not openly, unless it be very public and offensive, but privately, and in the kindest manner possible. Nothing can be more absurdly inconsistent than to reprove a violation of this virtue in unkind and discourteous language. It not only fails of its effect, but it gives an example of the opposite vice. An excellent and practicable mode of forming the habit of kindness, is to place one of the younger children in school under the particular charge of one of the older. They are to sit together, and the elder is, in every way in his power, to aid and encourage the younger. He is to show him the use of his slate, to explain his difficulties, and stimulate him to exertion. The benefit will be mutual, in so far as the studies are concerned; and in this way, each one of the more advanced will have one individual on whom constantly to exercise his kind affections, and each of the least advanced, will feel that he has one friend in school.

We should also take occasion to excite sympathy for the wretched. The following example, from the work of an eminent teacher, [S. R. Hall,] will show how we may avail ourselves of such incidents as occur: "It was a chilly day in winter, and we were seated in a comfortable schoolroom, when a man of wretched appearance was seen passing by, drawing a hand-sled, on which were several bundles of rags, the remnant of worn-out garments. He was clad in those that were little better, and was apparently so weak as to be scarcely able to draw his sled. Some looked out of the window and began to laugh. The instructor told the school they might all rise and look at the wretched man who was passing by. All did so, and nearly all were excited to laughter. After all had seen him, the master told them they might take their seats, and then said: 'I was willing that you should look at that man, but possibly my object was different from yours, as I see the effect on your feelings was very unlike that which was produced on mine. That miserable man, you perceive, is crazy. His bundles of rags, which perhaps he values, can be of no use to him. You see that he looks pale and emaciated, and so weak that he is scarcely able to draw his load. He is very poorly shielded from the cold of winter, and will probably perish in the snow. Now tell me, should this man excite your laughter? He was once a schoolboy, as bright and active as any of you. His return from school was welcomed by joyful parents, and his presence gave pleasure to the youthful throng who met each other for merriment in a winter evening. Look at him now; and can you sport with him who has lost his reason, and, in losing that, has lost all? Should I point to one of you, and be able by looking down into future years, to say to the rest, your associate will be hereafter, like this man, a roaming, wretched maniac, would you not rather weep than laugh? You saw me affected when I began to speak. I once had a friend; he was dear to me as a brother; he was every thing I could wish in a friend. I have, indeed, seldom seen his equal. He could grasp any subject, and what others found difficult only served as amusement for him. I saw him after an absence of two years. He was a maniac—in a cage, and chained. The moment he saw me he seized my hand. I have known sorrow; have

seen friends die that were as near as friends could be; but the hour that I sat by poor Bernet was an hour of the greatest anguish I ever knew."

Mercy to inferior animals is an extension of the principle of kindness. There is this to be said of cruelty that it proceeds from ignorance of the feelings of dumb creatures, as often as from indifference to them. When the amount of suffering endured by these animals is pointed out, and the imagination is awakened to realise it, the way is prepared for the removal of the cruelty which is so often exercised towards them.

FORGIVENESS OF INJURIES

Is the first and natural application of the Christian rule, and the seventy times seven of the Gospel are not an exaggeration of the extent and universality of its application. Another principle of Christian doctrine comes in here, in the words of Christ: "If ye forgive not men their trespasses, neither will your Father forgive your trespasses."—Matthew, vi. 15. It is our only condition of forgiveness. Then comes the example of the Saviour in the very moment of his agony: "Father, forgive them, they know not what they do."—Luke, xxiii. 34. To this we must add our own practice. How many times ought we to forgive the violations of our own poor and imperfect laws!

CHARITABLENESS

Is a far higher, more comprehensive, and more difficult duty; more difficult, because it requires a lowliness of spirit entirely at variance with the pride which almost universally belongs to the human heart. Charitableness is the highest attainment of the Christian. ["The greatest of these is charity."—1 Corinthians, xiii. 13.] Many occasions will occur of doing something to recommend this virtue. It will often happen that children of different religious denominations are in the same school, all of whom, under the influence of the bigoted and intolerant spirit so natural to ignorance, will take it for granted that they are right, and those who differ from them are wrong. Nothing will diffuse a right spirit among such discordant materials but the recommendations of charity, and the enforcement of the Christian command, "Judge not."—*The School and the School Master*.

GENERAL METHODS APPLICABLE TO ALL THE BRANCHES OF EDUCATION.

[The following methods are in successful use in Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Glasgow and other parts of Scotland. The faithful teacher will gather from them many potent aids to change the parrot system of our schools into a life-giving method of sound education.—Ed.]

ELLIPTICAL METHOD.

The elliptical method spoken of is to omit the last or some important word of a sentence, taking care that it is one easily supplied by the children, and which leaves the sentence plainly imperfect until it is given. Thus the children are engaged in a kind of conversation with the teacher, interesting to them because they are parties in it, and watching keenly the sentence, that they may seize the wanting word.—In the ellipsis used in this school, the first sounds of a word are frequently supplied, requiring the little assembly to suggest the rest. I observed a great difference in the facility with which the children supplied the ellipsis of their master, by whom they were in the habit of being questioned, and that of others by whom they were addressed, but found that it arose, generally, from the too great rapidity of the uninitiated teachers, by which they did not allow the children time to think and to answer. This explanation supposes the ellipsis well contrived. The method of responses is frequently varied, by inducing some one or more of the children to ask questions of the class, two or more of each other, or one or more to volunteer to be questioned by the class. From the whole of this method, emulation as a principle is excluded, it is not needed, and indeed it is truly held that it would be pernicious. I was surprised, in witnessing some of these exercises, at the accuracy with which the children stated their questions, resulting entirely from the imitation of the perspicuous style of the master.

Several things are named over to a class—hat, desk, chair, &c. These are the names of things. They are called nouns. Or, to employ the elliptical method of the school, these are the names of —, leaving to the pupils to reply — things. If it is perceived that all have not caught the answer, the class are made to repeat it. They are called nouns, is stated by the master. A noun is the name of a — thing, the ellipsis being supplied by the class. Further. You wish me to give you a stick of what kind? A short, a long, a smooth, &c., will be answered.—Short, long, &c., are qualities of the stick. They are called adjectives. Short is an — adjective. Stick is a — noun. An adjective is the quality of a — noun. Combining such exercises with pictorial representations of the parts of speech, and varying them until they suit the mind of every pupil, an indelible impression is made. A foundation is laid for grammar by rules taught in the higher classes, which should, however, be so accompanied by exercises as to be quite as practical as this.

CATECHETICAL METHOD.

Let us suppose a teacher desirous of communicating to a child the important fact, that "God at first made all things of nothing to shew his greatness;" it must be done, either by the child reading or hearing the sentence. If it be read, there is at least a chance, that the words may be all deciphered, and audibly pronounced, while the ideas contained in them have not reached the mind. The child may have carefully examined each word as it occurred, and may have reiterated each of them on his mind as he read them, and yet there may not be the slightest addition to his knowledge. The reiteration of words, as we have before explained, is not that which Nature requires, but the reiteration of ideas; and although we may, by substituting the one for the other, deceive ourselves, Nature will not be deceived; for unless the ideas contained in the sentence be reiterated by the mind, there can be no additional information conveyed. The same thing may happen, if the words, instead of being read by the child, are announced by the teacher. The pupil may in

that case hear the sounds: nay, he may repeat the words, and thus reiterate them in his mind after the teacher; but if he has not translated the words into their proper ideas as he proceeded, experience proves, that his knowledge remains as limited as before;—there has been no additional information. These cases are so common, and so uniform, that no farther illustration we think needs to be given of them.

The desideratum in both these cases is, some exercise by which the child shall be compelled to translate the words into their several ideas; and by reiterating the ideas themselves, not the words which convey them, he shall be enabled at once to commit them to the keeping of the memory, and thus make them part of his knowledge. The catechetical exercise supplies this want. For if, in either case, after the words have been read or repeated, the child is asked, "What did God make?" the translation of the words into the ideas, if previously neglected, is now forced upon him, because without this it is impossible for him to prepare the answer. The ideas must be drawn from the words, and reiterated by the mind, independently of the words, before the exercise can be completed.

The effects of the catechetical exercise, and its uniform beneficial results, have given sufficient evidence of its being a close imitation of Nature in this part of her educational process. Its success indeed has been invariable, even when employed by those who remained unconscious of the great principles by which that success was to be regulated. The observations and experiments employed to ascertain in some measure the extent of its efficiency, have uniformly been satisfactory, and to a few of these we shall here very shortly advert.

The first case of importance, which came under our notice, and to which we think it advisable to allude, is that of Mary L., who, about the year 1820, resided in Lady Yester's parish in Edinburgh. This girl, when her name was taken up for the Local Sabbath Schools in that parish, was about seven or eight years of age, and in respect to mental capacity, appeared to be little better than an idiot. She could not comprehend the most simple idea, if it related to any thing beyond the household objects which were daily forced upon her observation, and which had individually become familiar to the senses; and was unable to receive any instruction with the other children, however young. The catechetical exercise was adopted with her, as with the other scholars; and although, for a long period, she was unable to collect knowledge, yet the constant discipline to which the powers of the mind were thus subjected, had the happiest effect in bringing them into tone, and at last giving her the command of them. The comprehending of a simple truth when announced, became more and more distinct, and the answering of the corresponding questions, became gradually more correct and easy. At a very early period she began to relish the exercise of the school; and although these occurred only on the Sundays, she continued rapidly to improve; till, in the course of a few years, she was able to join the higher classes of the children, and made a respectable appearance among her companions, at those times when they were submitted to examination. When these schools were broken up, no stranger could have remarked any difference between Mary L. and an ordinary child of the same age.

[We omit many striking proofs of the success of this method, to make room for the following valuable remarks.]

From what has been already ascertained, we are fully warranted in making the following remarks.

1. From the above facts we can readily ascertain the cause, why some exercises employed in education are so much relished by the young, and so efficient in giving strength and elasticity to the mind; while others, on the contrary are so inefficient, so irksome, and sometimes so intolerable. Every exercise that tends to produce active thought—the "reiteration of ideas"—is natural, and therefore, not only promotes healthful mental vigor, but is also exciting and delightful; while, on the contrary, whenever the mind is fettered by the mere decyphering of words, or the repeating of sounds, without reiterating ideas, the exercise is altogether unnatural, and must of course be irritating to the child, and barren of good.

2. From the nature and operation of the above principle, also, we can perceive in what the efficiency of Pestalozzi's "Exercises on Objects," consists. When a child is required to tell you the color and consistence of milk, qualities which have all along been familiar to him, it conveys to him no knowledge; but it excites to observation and active thought,—to the "reiteration of ideas;"—and for this reason it is salutary. But it is still equally true, as in the former case, that the same degree of mental exercise, brought into operation upon some useful practical truth, would be at least equally useful as a mental stimulant, and much more beneficial as an educational exercise.

3. From the nature of this great fundamental principle in mental cultivation, as consisting in the reiteration of ideas, and not of words, we have a key by which we can satisfactorily explain the remarkable, and hitherto unaccountable fact, that many persons who, in youth and at school, have been ranked among the duller scholars, have afterwards become the greatest men. An active mind, in exact proportion to its vigor, will powerfully struggle against the unnatural thralldom of mere mechanical verbal exercises. The mind in a healthful state will not be satisfied with words, which are but the medium of ideas, because ideas alone are the natural food of the mind. Till the powers of the mind, therefore, are sufficiently enfeebled by time and perseverance, it will struggle with its fetters, and it will be repressed only by coercion. Minds naturally weak, or gradually subdued, may and do submit to this artificial bondage—this unnatural drudgery; but the vigorous and powerful mind, under favorable circumstances, spurns the trammels, and continues to struggle on. It may be a protracted warfare,—but it must come at last to a close; and it is not till the pupil has emerged from this mental dungeon, and has had these galling fetters fairly knocked off, that the natural elasticity and strength of his mind find themselves at freedom, with sufficient room and liberty to act. The impetus then received, and the delight in the mental independence then felt, have frequently led to the brightest results. Hence it is, that the reputed dunce of the school, has not unfrequently become the ornament of the senate.

Lastly, we would remark, that from the facts here enu-

merated, we derive a good test by which to try every new exercise proposed for training the young, and for cultivating the powers of the mind. If the exercise recommended compels the child to active thought—to the voluntary exercise of his own mind upon useful ideas—that exercise, whatever be its form, will, to that extent at least, be beneficial. And if, at the same time, it can be associated with the acquisition of knowledge, with the application of knowledge, or with the ready communication of knowledge—all of which, as we have seen, are concomitants in Nature's process—it will, in an equal degree, be valuable and worthy of adoption. But if, on the contrary, the exercise may be performed without the necessity of voluntary thought, or the reiteration of ideas by the mind, however plausible or imposing it may appear, it is next to certain, that although such an exercise may be sufficiently burdensome to the child, and cause much labor and anxiety to the teacher, it will most assuredly be at least useless, if not injurious.

ANALYTICAL METHOD.

When we read a connected section of history for the first time, and then examine the state of our knowledge respecting it, we find that we have retained some of the ideas or truths which we read, but that we have lost more. When that portion which we have retained is carefully examined, we find that it consists chiefly of the most prominent features of the narrative, with perhaps here and there occasional groupings of isolated circumstances. We have, in fact, retained upon the memory, little more than the general outline—the great frame-work of the history. There will be the beginning, the middle, and the end, containing perhaps few of the minor details, but what is retained is all in regular order, bound together as a continuous narrative, and, however meagre, the whole forms in the imagination of the reader, a distinct and connected whole. There is perhaps no more of the intended fabric of the history erected in the mind than the mere skeleton of the building, but this framework, however defective in the details, is complete both as to shape and size, and is a correct model of the finished building from top to bottom. This is the state of every advanced pupil's mind, after he has for the first time closed the reading of any portion of history or biography. If the narrative itself has been correct, this general outline,—this great frame-work of the history—remains on his mind through life, without any material alteration. Additional information afterwards will assist in filling up the empty spaces left between the more massive materials, but it will neither shake nor shift them; and even the most minute details of individual or family incidents, connected with the general narrative, while they add additional interest, and fill up or ornament different or separate parts, will never alter the general form of the fabric, nor displace any of the main pillars upon which it is supported.

In endeavoring to take advantage of this principle, so extensively employed by Nature, it is of great importance to observe, that a certain effect is produced by each successive reading. A first reading establishes in the mind of the pupil a regular frame-work of the whole history, which it is the business of every successive reading to fill up and complete. There is by the first course, a separation of the whole subject into the heads, forming the regular divisions of the first branch of the analysis;—the second course tends to subdivide these again into their several parts; and to form a second branch in this analytical table; and a third course, would enable the pupil to perceive and to separate the parts of the narrative included in these several divisions, by which there would arise a third branch, all included in the second, and even in the first.

In teaching the sciences, particularly the science of natural philosophy, this method of employing the principle of analysis has been found equally successful. Nature indeed, by the regular division of her several works, has obviously pointed this out as the proper method of proceeding, especially with the young; and the success that has invariably accompanied the attempt, shows that the opinion is well founded.

In the experiment at Aberdeen, the class of children, who were specially selected from their companions on account of their ignorance only a few days before, were "interrogated, scientifically, as to the production, the nature, and the properties of several familiar objects, with the view of showing how admirably calculated the Lesson System is, for furnishing the young with a knowledge of natural science and of the arts. One of their little companions being raised before them on a bench, they described every part of his dress, from the bonnet downwards, detailing every process and stage of the manufacture. The bonnet, which was put on his head for this purpose, the coat, the silk handkerchief, the cotton vest, were all traced respectively from the sheep, the egg of the silk-worm, and the cotton-pod. The buttons, which were of brass, were stated to be a composition of copper and zinc, which were separately and scientifically described, with the reasons assigned, (as good as could be given,) for their admixture, in the composition of brass."

A lady's parasol, and a gentleman's watch were described in the same manner. The ivory knob, the brass crampet, the bamboo, the whalebone, the silk, were no sooner adverted to, than they were scientifically described. When their attention was called to the seals of the gentleman's watch, they immediately said, "These are of pure, and those of jeweller's gold," and described the difference. The steel ring was traced to the iron-stone in the mine, with a description of the mode of separating the metal from its combinations. The processes requisite for the preparation of wrought-iron from the cast-iron, and of steel from the wrought-iron, with the distinguishing properties of each of these metals, were accurately described, and some practical lessons drawn from these properties; such as, that a knife ought never to be put into the fire, and that a razor should be dipped in warm water previous to its being used. Various articles were collected from individuals in the meeting, and successively presented to them, all of which they described: India-rubber, cork, sponge, pocket combs, &c. A small pocket thermometer, with its tube and its mercury, its principles and use, and even the Turkey-leather on the cover, were all fully described. After explaining the nature and properties of coal-gas, one of the boys stated to the meeting, that since the commencement of this experiment, he had himself attempted, and succeeded in making gas-light by

means of a tobacco-pipe;—his method of doing which is also described."

PRACTICAL METHOD.

We have said, and we again repeat, that *this* is education; and every thing else taught to a child is, or ought to be, either preliminary or supplementary;—*belonging* to education, perhaps, but not education itself. It is *practice*, and not *theory*, that constitutes the basis of all improvement, whether in the arts, or in morals and religion; and it is to this practical application of what he learns, that every child should be trained, by whatever name the mode of doing so may be known.

Knowledge is but the *means*,—the application of it is the *end*; and when therefore he stops short at the communication of knowledge, while he is indifferent to the teaching of its use, he endangers the whole of his previous labor. One single truth put to use, is of more real value to a child than a thousand are, as long as they remain unused; and of this, every friend of the young ought to be convinced. Our health, our food, and our general happiness depend, not on knowledge *received*, but on knowledge *applied*;—and therefore, to teach knowledge that is inapplicable or useless, or to teach useful knowledge without teaching at the same time how it may be put to use by the pupil, is neither reasonable nor just.

The drawing and applying of lessons, the exercise which we are here recommending, has been found a valuable remedy for this defect in ordinary reading. The object of the teacher by its use, is to accomplish in the pupil by *reading*, what we have shown Nature so frequently does by *observation*;—that is, to train the child to apply for his own use, or the use of others, those truths which he acquires from his *book*, in the same way that he does those which he derives from *experience*. To illustrate this, we shall instance a few cases of every day occurrence in which the question,—"What does this teach you?" when supplemented to the fact communicated, whether the truth from which the lesson is to be drawn, has been received by observation, by oral instruction, or by reading.

When an observing well-disposed child sees a school-fellow praised and rewarded for being obliging and kind to the aged or the poor, there is formed in the mind of that child, more or less distinctly, a resolution to follow the example on the first opportunity. Here is the fact and the lesson, with the application in prospect. This whole feeling may be faint and evanescent, but it is real; and it only wants the cultivating hand of the teacher to arrest it, and to render it permanent. Accordingly, if on the child hearing the praise given to his companion for being kind and obliging to the poor, he had at the time been asked, "What does that teach you?" the lesson suggested by Nature would instantly have assumed a tangible form; and in communicating the answer to the teacher, both the truth and the lesson would have been brought more distinctly before the mind, and the reply, "I should be kind and obliging to the poor," would tend to fix the duty on the memory, and would be a good preparation for putting it in practice when the next occasion should occur.

Again, if another thoughtful and well disposed child sees a companion severely punished for telling a lie, the question,—"What does that teach me?" is in some shape or degree formed in his mind, and his resolution, however faint, is taken to avoid that sin in future. This, it is obvious, is nothing more than a practical answer to the above question, forced upon the child by the directness of the circumstances, but which would not have so readily made its appearance; or produced its effect, in cases of a less obtrusive kind, or in one of more remote application; and every person must see, that the beneficial effects desired would have been more definite, more effectual, and much more permanent, had this faint indication of Nature's intention been followed up by orally asking the question at the child, and requiring him audibly to return an answer.

The pupil therefore ought early to be trained of himself to supplement the question, "What does this teach me?" or, "What can I learn from this?" to every circumstance or truth to which his attention is called; because the ability to answer it forms the chief, if not the only correct measure of a well educated person. In proof of this it is only necessary to remark, that as it is not the man who has accumulated the greatest amount of anatomical and surgical knowledge, but he who can make the best use of it, that is really the best surgeon; so it is not the man who has acquired the largest portion of knowledge, but he who can make the best use of the largest portion, that is the best scholar. Hence it is, that all the exercises in a child's education should have in view the practical use of what he learns, and of what he is to continue through life to learn, as the great end to which all his learning should be subservient.

The moral advantages likely to result from the general adoption of this mode of teaching useful knowledge are exceedingly cheering, and the only surprise is, that it has been so long overlooked. That the principle, though not directly applied to the purposes of education, was well known, and frequently practised by our forefathers, appears obvious from many of their valuable writings.

PARAPHRASTIC METHOD.

Many other methods for exercising the child's mind and oral powers at the same moment, will be suggested by the ingenuity of teachers, and by experience; and wherever a teacher hits upon one which he finds efficient, and which works well with his children, it is to be hoped that he will not deprive others of its benefit. Such communications in education, like mercy, are twice blessed. But the exercise which, for its simplicity and power, as well as for the extent of its application to the business and arrangements of the school, appears to answer the purpose best, and which embodies most extensively the stipulations required for the successful imitation of Nature in this part of her process, is that which has been termed the "Paraphrastic Exercise." The exercise here alluded to has this important recommendation in its practical working, that while it can be employed with the child who can read no more than a sentence, it may be so modified and extended, as to exercise the mental and oral powers of the best and cleverest of the scholars to their full extent. It consists in making a child read a sentence or passage aloud; and, while he is doing so in requiring him at the

same moment, to be actively employed in detecting and throwing out certain specified words in the passage, and in selecting, arranging and substituting others in their place; the child still keeping to the precise meaning of the author, and studying and practicing, as far as possible, simplicity, brevity, elegance, and grammatical accuracy. It may be asked, "What child will ever be able to do this?" We answer with confidence, that every sane pupil, by using the proper means, may attain it. This is no hypothesis, but a fact, of which the experiment in Leitch gives good collateral proof, and of which long and uniform experience has afforded direct and ample evidence. Any teacher, or parent indeed, may by a single experiment upon the very dullest of his pupils who can read, be satisfied on the point. Such a child, by leaving out and paraphrasing first one word in a sentence, then two, three, or more, as he acquires ability, will derive all the advantages above described; and, by advancing in the exercise, he may have his talents taxed during the whole progress of his education to the full extent of their power. It is in this that one great recommendation lies to this exercise—it being adapted to every grade of intellect, from the child who can only paraphrase a single word at a time, to the student who, while glancing his eye over the passage, can give the scope of the whole in a perfectly new form, and in a language and style entire his own.

MUTUAL OR MONITORIAL METHOD IN FRANCE AND HOLLAND.

Extracts from M. Cousin's Report.

He asked me how we got on with our system of mutual instruction. "Do you expect," he said, "that by such a mode of tuition, the instruction given in the primary schools will ever form men? for that in truth is the real purpose. The different things taught in school are but means, and their whole value depends upon the degree of relation they bear to that object. It never will be attained, unless the system of mutual instruction be given up; it does very well for the purpose of conveying a certain amount of information, but it will never educate the pupil; and, I repeat it, education is the object of all instruction."

It may be imagined with what satisfaction I listened to such sentiments, coming, as they did, from the mouth of so competent a judge as Mr. Van den Ende. "Nothing is more clear," I replied, "and both as a philosopher and a moralist. I maintain that simultaneous teaching (individual tuition being unattainable) is the only method that is suitable for the education of a moral being; but I am obliged to confess it, the system of mutual instruction is still popular in France, to a degree that is truly lamentable." "How does that happen," he said, "in a nation so intelligent as yours?" "From a fatal circumstance," I replied, "the consequences of which still continue. Under the restoration, the Government tried to place the primary schools in the hands of the clergy, and the resistance made to that scheme carried things to the opposite extreme. Some well meaning persons, but men who did not look below the surface of things, and were utter strangers to the subject of public instruction, having by chance visited some of those semi-barbarous manufacturing towns in England, where, for want of any thing better, they are too happy to have Lancasterian schools, mistook for a masterpiece of perfection, that which is only the infancy of the art of teaching; and were dazzled with the exhibition of vast numbers of children taught by one master, assisted only by little monitors, chosen from among the pupils themselves. Seeing children thus governed by children, they found a species of self-government, which they thought would be a useful preparation for the infusion of the democratic principle; and as it is obvious that a Christian education is impossible under such a system—for what monitor, even of twelve years of age, can give instruction in religion and morals—they saw that the religious education amounted to nothing, unless the dry repetition of a catechism, such as we might expect to find in Portugal or Spain, can be called by that name; and this they viewed as a triumph over the clergy. Other persons were pleased with the system on account of its cheapness, and then the eye was caught by the mechanical order and precision in the school exercises; the children went through their evolutions, according to a signal given by a child, as the different parts of the machinery in a factory are set in motion by a crank. This mechanical instruction was first set up, in opposition to the Church schools of the restoration; thus one extreme produces another; the domination of churchmen and despotism have equally unfavorable tendencies. Unhappily, the system of mutual instruction survived the struggles which preceded the revolution of 1830, but simultaneous instruction is gradually making progress, and the eyes of honest and disinterested persons will be opened." I added, that I had not met with a single schoolmaster in Germany, who was favorable to the system of mutual instruction; and that I had not seen one school so conducted, either at the Hague, or at Leyden. "Nor will you," replied Mr. Van den Ende, "in any other part of Holland;" a remark in which he was fully supported by Mr. Schreuder, to whom he appealed for the truth of it. "And this by no means arises," he continued, "from our not being sufficiently acquainted with that system; we have studied it well, and it is because we have studied it, that we have laid it aside."

Our visit being over, we entered gravely into a consideration of the comparative merits of the plans of mutual and simultaneous instruction. "Are you well acquainted, sir," I said, "with the system of mutual instruction?—have you applied it in practice?—and what is your opinion of it?" "We know it," he replied; "we have tried it, and we consider it as wholly insufficient for the object to be attained." "It is not," (I make use of the very words of Mr. L'Ange) "It is not a system which is calculated for moral and intelligent beings; and we do not admit the justice of applying it in a school for the poor, more than in any other school. For the poor have especial need of education, and you cannot educate by a plan of mutual instruction; you can instruct only by it, and that in so superficial, and in some respects mechanical a way, that it is no cultivation of the mind. At the time when Holland and Belgium were united, the Belgian liberals used to talk so highly in favor of that system, especially for large numbers of children, as in the schools for the poor, that our college of curators, who are attentive to every thing of consequence that is going on, which bears upon the education of the people, thought it their duty to make trial of the new system; and the result of that trial

was, that the plan of simultaneous teaching is the only true rational mode of education."

Let it not be said that what is taught in the Lancasterian schools is sufficient, and that we carry the education of the indigent classes too far in our own. If it be sound policy (and it does not appear to us that it is now considered so) to keep the lower orders sunk in ignorance, let education of every kind be given up; for an education which stops short at the first rudiments, is more dangerous and far more to be feared than a system of education carried on to higher objects. A man who is able to read and no more, may read books that will corrupt his morals or lead him on to acts of sedition; and for want of sufficient knowledge to enable him to reflect upon and justly appreciate what he has read, he is liable to be misled and carried away by mere external impulses. We repeat it, if we go so far as to enable the lower orders to read, we ought to give them at the same time the means of understanding and setting a just value on what they read; and this is what is chiefly aimed at in the education of the children of the poor in the schools of Amsterdam. All the books put into their hands, from the first elementary work, to those in use at the close of their education, contain precepts and examples of virtue, of wisdom, and of submission to superiors. They learn to read and to understand the history of their own country, and sacred history. Such reading lessons are better calculated than any thing else, to lead them on to the imitation of great and virtuous actions; the sole way of forming useful citizens. Further, (and this is another great advantage of the system followed in the schools of Amsterdam,) those among the pupils who show unusual talents have an opportunity of developing them, and of devoting themselves, by becoming apprentices, to the instruction of youth. In consequence of this, a great number of those necessitous children have been able to extricate themselves from a state of poverty, and to rise to the condition of reputable citizens."

Does the method of Lancaster yield results as durable as they are rapid? If it be useful in imparting quickly some elementary notions and elementary branches of knowledge, is it equally serviceable in developing and giving exercise to the moral faculties? Is it true that it is specially adapted to schools for the poor, where moral training is of infinitely higher importance than education in the ordinary sense of the term. Are its defects in this respect sufficiently compensated by its greater economy, both as regards time and money? Before we come to a final decision on these questions, a practical trial ought to be made, to see the effects of this plan of mutual instruction as compared with those of the systems hitherto acted upon. We shall have Lancasterian schools established by the side of those excellent schools which our country has so long had reason to boast of; and perhaps, by borrowing from each other what is preferable in each, we shall see the distance which now separates the two systems gradually diminish.

ETYMOLOGICAL METHOD, AS TAUGHT IN EDINBURGH.

The etymological instruction introduced by Mr. Wood, is one of the most striking features of his method. The teaching is also inductive, and even incidental to the reading, though, of course, the teacher must have a plan or systematic arrangement in his own mind, that important omissions may not occur. As an example of their etymological lessons, suppose the pupil, in reading, meets the word "introduce," he is made to divide it, "intro" and "duce." He is told that "intro" is a prefix from the Latin, and means within. He is asked for some other word beginning with "intro," and soon exhausts "introduction," "introductory," &c. The other part is next taken up, and its meaning (to lead) is explained. Examples of it are given by different members of the class, as "adduce," "conduce," "deduce," "educate," "induce," "induction," "produce," &c. The teacher takes care that no important word is omitted in furnishing these examples. The true knowledge of the meaning of words thus acquired, has led to the use of the method even in the classical schools, where it is found to furnish a new motive to study, by placing one application of his knowledge immediately before the pupil. The great command of words which it must give, when derivations from different ancient and modern languages are thus called for, is quite obvious.

AS RECOMMENDED IN KENTUCKY.

The teacher says to the pupil on the right, "spell the word man." Suppose it spelled correctly—all instantly write it down. He asks, "what is the exact meaning of that word? What are the ideas which it brings into your mind?" If none in the class can answer, he says, "is not every man of the human species—of mature age, and of the masculine gender, or male kind?" "Yes." "Then every creature, in which are united these three ideas, or points of resemblance, is a man, and none others." "Of what, then, is the word man the sign?" "Why, of those three points of resemblance, and consequently of every thing in which they co-exist." The teacher asks, "can any of you recollect or make a word, in which the word man is only a part?" If none succeed, he says put *ly* to the end of it. "You know what I mean, when I say of a little boy, he is a manly little fellow." "Yes, like a man—resembling a man—after the manner of a man." "Very well, try at the end of other words—womanly, earthly—what do they mean?" "Why, like a woman—like the earth." "Then you know the meaning of *ly* at the end of all English words—what is it?" "How many ideas, then, in manly?" "Four, three in man, and one in *ly*." "Very well, try again—attempt to add something to the word, before man." "Unmanly." "What does *un* mean in unjust, unkind, &c." "Why, not—not just—not kind—not manly." "True, how many ideas then, in unmanly?" "Five." Thus the meaning of words is shown to depend on their materials, and the prefixes, and terminations, and many radicals are acquired. The pupils continue to analyze and construct words, until they are perfectly familiar with the use and effect of our verbal materials. Those who have not witnessed the effects of this method, will be surprised to find what able builders up and demolishers of verbal formations little boys and girls will become—how their reasoning faculties are developed; and what an accurate knowledge of the meaning of words they acquire—nor is this all. Long before they open a grammar, they will have classed, and arranged in their natural classes, the words

of the language; those ending in *ing*—*ed*—*er*—*ion*—*tude*—*ness*, &c., as present participles, past participles, active agents, and abstract names. They will not pass words, in reading, which they do not understand. They know what it is to read. And they soon discover that all their difficulties in ascertaining the meaning of words result from radicals, and that many of these in our compound formations do not exist separately in the language. Hence arises the desire to learn those languages in which these radicals, which constitute the basis of so many English words, are to be found. A little girl asked me the meaning of *indecorous*; "I know," said she, "the meaning of the *in* and the *ous*." I handed her a Latin Dictionary, and told her to look for *decor*, the basis of the English word. After reading over the English meanings, she said: "I must learn Latin, for I see that a great many of our gentleman words are old Romans, with English hats and boots on."

JACOTOT'S METHOD.

RULES TO BE FOLLOWED.

1. Your first and great duty is to keep your pupils constantly employed about some useful subject. Never suffer him to waste or slumber away his time. Admonish—stimulate him to do something.
2. Present objects, and sentiments, and facts for his consideration, now in one position, now in another. Oblige him to observe them on all sides. Ask him if he has seen all, and leave him to discover.
3. Oblige him to reflect on every thing that he sees, by requiring him to write or express his thoughts upon it.
4. Call upon him to verify his opinions and expressions; to justify all that he does; by referring to reason or authority.
5. Never expect that he will perceive or say everything relating to a subject. You cannot. Do not anticipate that he will understand everything. No man does. Be satisfied if he is sensible of his ignorance,—if he is learning something. Rome was not built in a day.
6. Do not, therefore, attempt to force matters by your own explanations. He does not need them. They will debase him by making him think himself dependent for his ideas on the intellect of others. They will make him a sluggard.—Leave him to learn alone, and he will find them himself in due season.
7. Do not correct his mistakes. Oblige him to search for them. Give him time, and he will correct himself. Do not make him a machine, to be moved by your impulse.
8. Encourage him to effort by approbation of his success. Stimulate him, by showing him that he is yet imperfect.—Subdue his vanity by convincing him that every one can do the same with proper effort.
9. In short, act upon the principle that human intelligence is a unit—that the difference of men consists in the power of attention and will, and in the degree of knowledge—and you will find reason to believe it true. Teach your pupils to believe that they are able, and you will find them able.—Cultivate the spirit of resolution—the force of will—and you will do more to make them scholars, than by volumes of explanation.
10. When you have succeeded in inducing them to exert their powers, and to be conscious of their independence of others for knowledge, they are emancipated. Then you may aid them occasionally by your experience and knowledge, with safety and usefulness.

SIMULTANEOUS METHOD.

This method is approved by the most intelligent friends of education. It is in general use in Scotland, Holland, and many other parts of Europe, and has been tried with much success in this country, particularly in infant schools. Its distinctive peculiarity is the teaching of the class simultaneously, each pupil responding; and when skillfully managed, awakens deep interest, secures constant attention, and consequent rapid advancement in knowledge.

IN ENGLAND.

To facilitate the adoption of the simultaneous method, the boys' school was divided into five classes, of from 40 to 50 children each; the girls' school into four classes, each containing 40, besides other classes employed in the workshops. In each class the children are arranged in four grades of desks, each grade containing 10 or 11 children. Each grade rises four inches above the preceding, so that the last desk is a foot higher than the first. The desks are each 15 inches wide; and each desk, with the space for the form and passage behind it, occupies about three feet.

Each class is separated from those adjacent by curtains, which fall from the ceiling, and which are drawn up by ropes adjusted as in a Venetian blind. These curtains subdue the noise arising from the teaching of large numbers in the same room; they likewise prevent the distractions of the attention of the children by surrounding objects, and enable the teacher to concentrate the energies of the class on the matter of instruction he has to convey to them; but solid wooden partitions sliding into the adjacent walls, are preferable to curtains, when so prepared as to be moved with ease, and effectually to exclude sound. Separate apartments, arranged on a plan facilitating inspection from a central room, afford, however, the best means of instructing classes of 50 on the simultaneous method.

BLACK-BOARD.

"This most useful piece of school apparatus, may be simply a broad board painted or stained black, attached to the wall or to a moveable stand. It may be of any convenient size, from twenty inches square to three by seven feet. It is employed in teaching scholars of every stage of advancement, from the alphabet to the higher mathematics and mathematical philosophy.

Many children have learned to read and write all our small and capital letters and arithmetical figures, by copying them from the board on their slates, before they had commenced the use of the pen; and this at times when they would not otherwise have been usefully employed.

"In *Arithmetic*, a question is stated on the board. Then the teacher shows the class or the whole school, carefully

step by step, the whole process of the solution. After this, the pupil works out the same and similar questions on their slates, as usual. Frequently a question may be written on the board for all the scholars to work at their seats. After all have tried it, the teacher or some pupil that has done the question, may work it on the board, and explain the principles it involves.

"In Grammar, the declension of nouns and pronouns, the comparison of adjectives, and the conjugation of verbs, may be readily exhibited on the board. Examples to illustrate definitions or rules, &c. also, and sentences for parsing, may be written on the board, where all can be instructed at once, as readily as one alone.

"In Geography, the scholars may sketch, in turn the outlines of a country, and work the courses of the rivers, the situations of the mountains and cities, and the forms and places of bays, lakes, &c. Each may be permitted to point out the errors in the other's drawings, and correct them if he can; but the teacher should review and correct the whole."—[Ohio Com. Sch. Director.

COUNTY COMMON SCHOOL CONVENTIONS.

[THESE frequent conventions show that an educational movement has begun; that the springs of public action are touched; that men are beginning to inquire into the defects and means of our schools, and to co-operate with its officers in making them fit nurseries of a virtuous people. We rejoice that it is so. With public opinion enlisted under the banner of universal education, the progress of reform will be easy and rapid, and its results inestimable good.

These movements of the people also furnish most gratifying evidence of the zeal and ability of the County Deputies, and of the influence of that searching supervision now enforced by the department.—Ed.]

WASHINGTON COUNTY.

[Extracts from the proceedings.]

The following are the proceedings of a large and highly respectable convention of officers, teachers, and friends of common schools of the northern section of the county of Washington, held in the village of West Granville on the 27th of Sept. ult.

The convention was called to order by Dr. A. Wright, Deputy Superintendent for this part of the county, and on his motion, Hon. Reuben Skinner was chosen president; Hon. A. R. Moore and Rev. Leonard Johnson, chosen vice-presidents; and M. A. Dailey and J. P. Reynolds, secretaries.

At the request of the convention, Rev. Mr. Johnson opened the proceedings with prayer.

On motion, a committee on business was appointed to present subjects for the consideration of the convention. After retiring a few moments, the committee, through Mr. L. H. Reynolds their chairman, reported that committees be appointed to report on the following subjects, viz: On resolutions; on teachers' associations; on the duties of teachers; on the duties of trustees; on text-books; on attendance of pupils; on duties of parents; on the introduction of natural history into common schools; and on school houses; and that Dr. A. Wright, Deputy Superintendent, after the appointment of the several committees, be requested to address the convention. The report was accepted and the committees were appointed, after which, according to arrangement, Dr. A. Wright delivered an address. He was followed in some remarks by Dr. W. Wright, Deputy Sup't for the southern section of the county.

RESOLUTIONS.

Resolved, That the best means of promoting the happiness and prosperity of a nation, or a community, is to give a thorough practical education, to every individual member of it.

Resolved, That, as our common schools are the only places in which a large proportion of our population is ever taught, it is our duty and interest, as desiring the greatest happiness of the nation, to use every exertion and all our influence, to make them, what they long since ought to have been, the best nurseries of learning in the land.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, the common schools of this country are not what they ought to be, what they might be, nor what they are too generally, by the people, supposed to be; and that nothing short of the hearty, united, and active co-operation of the sovereign people, can ever raise them to that high and elevated standard, which the interest of society, and the well being of individuals so imperiously demand.

Resolved, That the apathy and want of interest manifested by parents, which prevents them from visiting and personally inspecting their schools, are the principal causes of many existing evils, which press like the weight of an incubus upon the usefulness of the schools, crushing the very vitality of the system.

Resolved, That the office and profession of a school teacher, presents a broad and extended field for the active exercise of the most exalted talents of mind and the warmest feelings of the human heart.

Resolved, That we cordially approve of the law creating the office of deputy superintendent of common schools, and from the labors of these officers we confidently anticipate a gradual and permanent advancement of the standard of general education, and great and important improvements in our schools.

Resolved, That the efforts of Dr. Wright, our Deputy Superintendent, for the promotion of the interests of the schools of this county, deserve the warm commendation of every one who is a friend of common school education.

Resolved, That we look upon the District School Journal as an efficient and valuable advocate of the interests of common school education, and, as such, we recommend it to the patronage of teachers and people of this county.

These resolutions were ably and eloquently sustained by Rev. Mr. Doolittle, Rev. Mr. Johnson, Dr. A. Wright, Dr. W. Wright, and several others.

The reports of the several committees were called up, and owing to the lateness of the hour (10 o'clock P. M.) they were adopted without debate.

Closed by a solemn and impressive prayer by Rev. Mr. Doolittle.

REUBEN SKINNER, Pres't.

M. A. DAILEY, } Secretaries.
J. P. REYNOLDS, }
—[Whitehall Chronicle.

CLINTON COUNTY EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.

In compliance with the recommendation of the common school department of this state, notice was given by the Deputy Superintendent of a convention to be held in the village of Plattsburgh, on the last Wednesday in September. In pursuance of this notice, the convention assembled at the Court-house at the appointed time, and proceeded to the organization of the meeting. The convention was called to order by D. S. T. Douglas, Deputy Superintendent, and on his motion was temporarily organized by calling J. D. Woodward to the chair, and appointing G. W. Fitch, secretary.

On motion, the following persons were appointed a committee to nominate officers for the convention: Dr. De Foris, Hiram Parish, of Plattsburgh, and Mr. Sprague of Ausable. The committee, after a short recess, reported the following:

J. D. Woodward, president; Ira D. Knowls, Joel Savage, O. R. Barber, vice-presidents; G. W. Fitch, secretary.

The report of the committee having been adopted, the president made a very appropriate address in relation to the object of the meeting, and the happy results that might accrue from the proceedings of this convention.

On the re-assembling of the convention, the committee to draft a constitution presented the following, which was adopted:

CONSTITUTION.

ART. I. This society shall be called the "Clinton County Educational Association."

II. The object of this association shall be to promote the interests of popular education throughout the county.

III. The officers of this association shall consist of a president, four vice-presidents, two recording secretaries, one central corresponding secretary, and one corresponding secretary in each town in the county, and an executive committee to consist of five persons.

IV. This association shall hold its annual meetings on the last Tuesday in September, in each succeeding year.

V. The business of this association at its meetings shall consist of discussions, addresses and essays on the subject of education, by its members or other persons appointed for that purpose.

VI. The election of officers for this association shall be had at each annual meeting.

VII. Any person may become a member of this association by subscribing his name to this constitution.

VIII. This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting of the association by a vote of two-thirds of the members present.

The following are the names of officers of the association:

J. D. WOODWARD, Esq. President.

Hon. RICHARD KEENE, GEO. MOORE, Esq., Rev. AZARIAH HYDE, Hon. WM. HEDDING, Vice-Presidents.

Minor Chamberlain, G. W. Fitch, Rec. Secretaries.

D. S. T. Douglas, Central Cor. Secretary.

D. T. Moore, Geo. Stevenson, R. O. Barber, A. Marshal, H. C. Fitch, Thomas Watson, Hiram C. Everest, Mr. Harris, John Weed, R. S. Lockwood, Cor. Secretaries.

Mr. A. Hyde, from the committee on resolutions, reported the following, which, after eliciting much interesting discussion, were adopted.

Resolved, That the cause of education is fundamental to the perpetuity and influence of our free institutions; that virtue and intelligence are the only safeguard of our civil and religious liberty; and it is, therefore, the solemn duty of every patriot and philanthropist to use his highest exertions to extend the blessings of knowledge through all classes and conditions of life.

Resolved, That the present system adopted by the state legislature in relation to common schools, is well calculated and amply sufficient to accomplish the great object in view, and all that remains, is for the citizens themselves to carry it out by steady and effective co-operation.

Resolved, That parents and guardians of children can do much to encourage both teachers and scholars by frequently visiting the schools in their respective districts, thus manifesting an interest in the improvement and welfare of their children.

The association adjourned till the last Tuesday in September, 1843.

J. D. WOODWARD, President.

G. W. FITCH, Secretary.
—[Plattsburgh Republican.

FRANKLIN COUNTY.

The Association for the Promotion of Education met at Fort Covington on the 5th instant. The Hon. Roswell Bates presided.

A very interesting and appropriate address was delivered by E. L. Winslow, Esq.; after which, the committee on text books reported the following, as in their opinion the most meritorious and the best calculated to advance the great cause of intellectual improvement.

The report was unanimously accepted by the association; after which, the following resolutions were offered, discussed by several gentlemen, and adopted:

Resolved, That in our opinion there is a great deficiency in the matter of teaching; that it is not sufficiently definite, but quite too general in character; and that more efforts should be made by the teachers to lead the scholars to understand the reasons why and wherefore.

Resolved, That we recommend the teachers of this county to hold a convention at some future time, and at such place as will best accommodate all of them, for the purpose of advancing the interests of common schools.

The thanks of the association are presented to E. L. Winslow, Esq. for his able, lucid and interesting address, a copy of which was requested for publication.

D. H. STEVENS, Dep. Sup't, Secretary.
Fort Covington, Oct. 5, 1841. [Palladium.

LIVINGSTON COUNTY.

District School Convention of the town of Mount Morris.

[We are glad to see the proceedings of a town school convention, and recommend to the deputies to hold similar meetings in every town of their several counties. By bringing home, in this manner, the condition of the schools, and acting directly on those interested, they will aid in making the county meetings much more efficient.—Ed.]

Agreeably to previous appointment, this convention met at the Baptist Church in District No. 11, at one o'clock P. M., and called to order by Mr. Patchin, Deputy Superintendent, who nominated Mr. Oren D. Lake as chairman, and N. W. Benedict as secretary, and they were accordingly elected by vote. The following items of business were then presented for the consideration of the convention, viz:

1. Mr. Patchin presented a brief abstract of the statistics of the schools of the town which he had visited during the past winter and summer.

2. Messrs. M. Stone, I. Patchin and C. Hungerford were appointed a committee to bring business before the convention, and presented the following resolutions:

Resolved, That our district schools are deserving of the deepest solicitude and of the united patronage of the whole people.

Whereas the law creating the district school libraries, is one that commends itself to the heart and mind of every intelligent person, as it scatters among the ten thousand school districts hundreds of volumes of useful reading matter; and whereas it is desirable that the greatest benefits possible should be derived from them; therefore,

Resolved, That we earnestly recommend to the trustees of the different districts of this town to keep the libraries in the school-room during term time.

Whereas many of our school-houses are unfortunately located, mean in their external appearance, inconvenient and uncomfortable within; therefore,

Resolved, That immediate reform in this respect is greatly needed.

These resolutions being taken up in order and most of them separately advocated with much interest by Messrs. Patchin, Abel, Stone, Stark of Union Corners, Brooks, Hungerford, and several others, were unanimously passed.

A large committee, comprising one or more from each of the districts represented in the convention, was then appointed, to select a set of text-books for the use of schools throughout the town.

The secretary was ordered, by resolution, to prepare a list of these books, and to forward the same to each school district in town.

Resolved, That this convention recommend to the several districts throughout the town, to hold a public examination of their schools at the close of the coming winter term.

Adjourned to meet on the first Saturday in December.

OREN D. LAKE, Chairman.
N. W. BENEDICT, Secretary.
—[Livingston Express.

MONROE COUNTY.

Education—Effects of the New Law, &c.

We utter what we know to be the common sentiment of the friends of education throughout Monroe county, when we express satisfaction at the impulse given to common school education in this quarter under the law authorizing the appointment of superintendents in the different counties. The gentleman selected by the supervisors for superintendent in this county, Henry E. Rochester, has devoted himself to the work with an enlightened zeal worthy of the noble cause. And we believe that many who once doubted the utility of such superintendency, are now satisfied that something of the kind was needed to give vitality to our common school system, &c.

In the city of Rochester, also, the results of the system thus far may be inferred from the great improvement in school edifices and the increased attention to securing good teachers, as well as from the unanimous vote of the new board of education for retaining Alderman Mack as Superintendent of the city common schools.

It should not be overlooked here, that the spirit with which Col. Young, the Secretary of State, discharges his duty as State Superintendent of Common Schools, is frequently mentioned with hearty satisfaction by the friends of education, without respect to partisan differences.—[Western New Yorker.

An additional evidence of the working of the new system of supervision in this county, is the appointment, by the Board of Supervisors, of an additional deputy—Mr. John Brown of Chili, as associate of Mr. Rochester.

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